DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 218 200 SO 014 152

TITLE	The Future of Social Studies: A Report and Summary of Project SPAN.
INSTITUTION	Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
SPONS AGENCY	National Science Foundation, Washington, D.C. Directorate for Science Education.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-89994-273-3
PUB DATE	82
GRANT	NSF-SED-77-18598
NOTE	95p.; For related documents, see ED 211 429 and SO 014 151-154.
AVAILABLE FROM	Social Science Education Consortium Publications, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302 ($7.95, series $49.50).
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Course Content; Curriculum; Educational Environment; Educational History; *Educational Needs; Elementary Secondary Education; *Futures (of Society); Instruction; Instructional Materials; Problems; Program Descriptions; Publications; Public Support; *Social Studies; State of the Art Reviews; Student Attitudes; Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	*Project SPAN

ABSTRACT

The future of K-12 social studies is examined in this volume, one in a series resulting from Project SPAN (Social Studies/Social Science Education: Priorities, Practices, and Needs). The report contains four sections. The first section presents "A Summary of Project SPAN." The project reviewed and analyzed the current state of K-12 social studies in order to form a basis for recommendations for future directions that might be taken to improve social studies. The five reports which were written as a result of Project SPAN are described. The second section presents and examines "Six Problems for Social Studies in the 1980s." The problems concern student learning and valuing of social studies, the culture of the school, teaching practices, the curriculum, the social studies profession, and public support. The focus of the third section is the "Desired States for Social Studies." The desired states for each of the problem areas identified in the second section are described. Together the six desired states present a vision of an ideal state of social studies education. The final section presents "Recommendations for Social Studies in the 1980s." The recommendations are organized to parallel the six problems and desired states. (Author/RM)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED218200

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

SSEC

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

THE FUTURE OF SOCIAL STUDIES:
A REPORT AND SUMMARY OF PROJECT SPAN

By Project SPAN Staff and Consultants

SO 014 152

A Project SPAN Report
Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
Boulder, Colorado
1982

ORDERING INFORMATION

This book is available from:

SSEC Publications
855 Broadway
Boulder, Colorado 80302

ISBN 0-89994-273-3

Price: $7.95

Other Project SPAN Reports:

-- Social Studies Reform: 1880-1980 (ISBN 0-89994-270-9; $12.95)

-- The Current State of Social Studies: A Report of Project SPAN (ISBN 0-89994-272-5; $18.95)

-- Working Papers from Project SPAN (ISBN 0-89994-275-X; $14.95)

-- Social Roles: A Focus for Social Studies in the 1980s (ISBN 0-89994-274-1; $9.95)

Series Price: $49.50

This work was supported by the Research in Science Education (RISE) Program of the National Science Foundation, Grant No. SED-7718598. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation.

CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS iv

A SUMMARY OF PROJECT SPAN 1

Introduction 1
Social Studies Reform: 1880-1980 3
The Current State of Social Studies. 7
The Future of Social Studies 13
Working Papers from Project SPAN 19
Social Roles: A Focus for Social Studies in the 1980s 21

SIX PROBLEMS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE 1980S. 23

Introduction 23
Problem 1: Student Learning 26
Problem 2: The Culture of the School. 29
Problem 3: Teaching Practices 31
Problem 4: The Curriculum 34
Problem 5: The Social Studies Profession. 36
Problem 6: Public Support 39
Interrelationships Among the Six Problems. 40
Some Positive Results of Recent Efforts to Improve Social Studies 42
Potential for Future Progress in Social Studies Education. 44

DESIRED STATES FOR SOCIAL STUDIES 47

Introduction 47
Desired State: Student Learning 48
Desired State: The Culture of the School. 50
Desired State: Teaching Practices 52
Desired State: The Curriculum 54
Desired State: The Social Studies Profession. 57
Desired State: Public Support 61

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE 1980S 63

Introduction 63
Recommendations: Student Learning 64
Recommendations: The Culture of the School. 64
Recommendations: Teaching Practices 68
Recommendations: The Curriculum 73
Recommendations: The Social Studies Profession. 78
Recommendations: Public Support 83

REFERENCES. 87

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A project of this magnitude cannot succeed without the cooperation of a large number of people. In fact, a dedicated group of staff members and consultants worked arduously to complete the SPAN reports.

The staff members who worked with SPAN throughout the project are Douglas Superka, Associate Project Director and Staff Associate of SSEC, and Sharryl Hawke, Staff Associate of SSEC. Bruce Tipple, a Staff Associate of SSEC, also served as a staff member during the early part of the project, as did three Teacher Associates of SSEC, Maria Rydstedt, John Zola, and William Cleveland.

Two individuals produced commissioned papers at the request of the project staff. Dana Kurfman reviewed the status of evaluation processes in social studies and made recommendations on needed changes. Hazel Hertzberg wrote an extensive review of social studies reform efforts from 1880 to 1980.

The consultants who worked with SPAN throughout the project are:

Lee Anderson
Professor of Political Science
Northwestern University

Bob Beery
Social Studies Consultant
Rochester (Minnesota) Public Schools

Mary Vann Eslinger
Social Studies Consultant
North Carolina State Department of Education

Verna Fancett
Social Studies Teacher Emeritus
Fayetteville, NY

John D. Haas
Professor of Education
University of Colorado

James G. Lengel
Social Studies Consultant
Vermont State Department of Education

Jarrell McCracken
Teacher of Social Studies
Manual High School
Denver, CO

John U. Michaelis
Professor Emeritus of Education
University of California, Berkeley

Fred M. Newmann
Professor of Curriculum and Instruction
University of Wisconsin

John Patrick
Professor of Education
Indiana University

Elizabeth A. Pellett
Social Studies Consultant
Los Angeles County Schools

Roosevelt Ratliff
Associate Director for Affiliated Units
The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

To these individuals and to all those educators who provided feedback and insight to staff and consultants, the project gives a sincere vote of appreciation.

Irving Morrissett
Director, Project SPAN
Executive Director, Social Science Education Consortium

A SUMMARY OF PROJECT SPAN

Introduction

Project SPAN (a loose acronym for "Social Studies/Social Science Education: Priorities, Practices, and Needs) was funded in 1978 by the National Science Foundation. Project SPAN undertook the tasks of describing and assessing the current and recent state of social studies/social science education, of designating desired states to which social studies might or should aspire, and of shaping recommendations as to how those desired states might be approached. This has been a formidable task, increasing in difficulty as the project moved from describing the current state to envisioning desired states to framing recommendations.

During the first phase of the project--review and analysis of the recent and current state of social studies/social science education--the project began with three coordinated studies of science education supported by the National Science Foundation during the period 1976-1978: a series of case studies conducted by the Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation at the University of Illinois (Stake and Easley 1978), a national survey conducted by the Research Triangle Institute (Weiss 1978), and a survey of literature for the period 1955-1975, conducted by The Ohio State University with the assistance of the Social Science Education Consortium (Wiley 1977). These three studies, using three very different but congruent methodologies, provide a wealth of information about precollege education in natural science, mathematics, and social studies/social science education.

In addition to studying these three fruitful sources, SPAN staff and consultants reviewed hundreds of other documents bearing on social studies and, through correspondence and at conferences, sought the advice and comments of many persons throughout the nation. This intensive study of events of the past 20 to 30 years was also supplemented by the 100-year perspective on social studies reform written by Hazel Whitman Hertzberg (1981).

The final part of the first phase of the project's work was preparation of a detailed statement of the major problems facing social studies in the 1980s, as seen by the consultants and staff.

In its second phase, the project developed a series of "desired states" for social studies--an idealistic description of what social studies programs and classes might look like in the future and of what student participation and outcomes might be expected from those types of programs and classes.

The third phase of the project involved developing a series of recommendations indicating how social studies might move from the problems described in the first phase toward the desired states laid out in the second.

Preliminary versions of the current-state results, major problems, desired states, and specific recommendations from the project were presented to more than 100 social studies educators across the nation during the spring of 1980. Numerous revisions were made on the basis of comments and suggestions received from these educators.

With respect to the specification of desired states and of recommendations for achieving them, the basic fact of social studies education at present is that there is a great diversity of opinion, from which it is impossible to elicit consensus. There are polar positions on the most basic issues, and a range of opinion between the poles. Some feel that social studies is in need of drastic revision, others that there is little or no need for concern.

The great diversity of opinion about desired states and recommendations that exists in the literature and in the opinions of social studies educators throughout the nation, as experienced by SPAN staff members in perusing the literature, in numerous meetings and conversations, and in voluminous correspondence, was also reflected in the 12 consultants who worked with the SPAN staff throughout the project. These consultants were chosen for their known contributions to social studies literature and practice and for their representation of various social studies roles: elementary or secondary teacher, consultant or supervisor at district or state level, professional association, university teacher. They were indeed "representative"--not only of social-studies-educator roles but also of a wide range of opinions about desired states and recommendations!

Given this diversity of opinion, both in the social studies field at large and within the group of consultants, the SPAN staff (within which there were also some differences of opinion!) had to take the ultimate

responsibility for formulating the statements concerning desired states and recommendations. We wish to give full credit for information and ideas we have borrowed and used--borrowed both from the consultants and from social studies educators at large. But the staff must accept final responsibility for the content of the SPAN reports. These reports are:

--Social Studies Reform: 1880-1980, by Hazel Whitman Hertzberg

--The Current State of Social Studies: A Report of Project SPAN, by Project SPAN staff and consultants

--The Future of Social Studies: A Report and Summary of Project SPAN, by Project SPAN staff and consultants (this volume)

--Working Papers from Project SPAN, by Project SPAN staff and consultants

--Social Roles: A Focus for Social Studies in the 1980s, by Douglas P. Superka and Sharryl Hawke.

The remainder of this section describes and summarizes these reports.

Social Studies Reform: 1880-1980

Throughout the era of the new social studies, Hertzberg challenged the naivete of those who plunged into reform efforts with little knowledge of previous attempts at reform. As a student of history and a participant in a neglected precursor of the new social studies--the Citizenship Education Project of the 1950s--she observed the rise and fall of the new social studies with dismay and regret. "There is no reason why what has been rediscovered should not be retried," she says in her report, "but it would be valuable to know what happened the first time. Wheels reinvented are often wheels spun" (p. xi).

Project SPAN asked Hertzberg to spell out the lessons of the past to which would-be social studies reformers should attend. The result is a masterful review of efforts that have been made throughout the past century to shape the content and structure of history, social science, and social studies in the nation's elementary and secondary curricula.

Origins of Today's Structures of Schooling and Curriculum

Hertzberg starts her review in 1880, the opening of a decade she sees as a time when powerful social, political, and economic forces were just beginning to influence the future shape of American schooling--"a seed-time for the remarkable growth of the public high school and the forces that shaped its curriculum" (p. 3). It was during the 1880s that the number of students in public high schools first exceeded the number in private schools, marking the beginning of the spectacular growth in public schools that eventually established the norm of high school graduation for all Americans. Other important forces that gathered strength in the 1880s included the "rise of the universities" and the "emergence of national agencies of reform" connected with both the schools and the universities--especially the American Historical Association, established in 1884, and the National Education Association, which experienced a "rebirth" in 1884.

Committees and Commissions

The three national efforts that Hertzberg identifies as having had the most lasting effects on the social studies all completed their work more than half a century ago. The first of these, the "History Ten," was one of nine committees of ten established by the NEA. Its members were prestigious school persons and academicians, with all of the then-recognized social sciences represented. Like later commissions, the History Ten focused on the relationship between high school curriculum requirements and college entrance requirements; also like the later commissions, it made extensive recommendations about the high school curriculum in its 1893 report without solving the problem of its relationship to college entrance requirements.

The Committee of Seven, established by the AHA in 1896, consisted of experienced and able educator-academicians, including the first woman to serve on a national curricular committee. The committee's 1889 report, built in part on the work of the History Ten, reflected the members' belief "in the value of history as general education for citizens," their "confidence in the future of their country and the values of its past," and their belief that high school should serve the purpose "'of developing boys and girls into men and women,' rather than fitting them for college."

History "was a synthesizing subject which could give 'unity, continuity, and strength to the curriculum'" (p. 13). The Seven proposed a four-year high school sequence consisting of ancient, medieval, European, English, and American history, with some attention to "civil government" in the fourth year. Considerable attention was given to method, including many of the emphases and reinventions of the new social studies. In addition, the report "cemented a connection between the historical profession and the schools which continued for decades" (p. 16).

The Seven's report had significant influence on the high school curricula in the next decade and a half, a period of intense reform activity in American life. This was the time of Progressivism and John Dewey, of fundamental disputes about the nature of history and its role in the schools, and of the formation of many new professional societies of historians and of other scientists.

The 1916 report of the NEA Committee on the Social Studies "was probably the most influential in the history of the social studies" (p. 25). Unlike the two previous committees, the NEA group included very few academicians; nine of its sixteen members were from regional history teachers' associations. The report was at the time only one among many, but in retrospect "it became a landmark" (p. 26). Combining a modern approach to history with the pedagogy of Dewey, the report prescribed a course of study for grades 7-12 that advocated greater attention to "the present life interests of the pupil" (p. 27). The shift away from the academic emphasis of the earlier committee reports is evidenced by the attention given to "community civics," by the advocacy of a 12th-grade course in "Problems of Democracy," and by the prominence accorded to the term "social studies," defined as "those whose subject matter relates to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups" (p. 26).

While the various committees emphasized the high-school curriculum, the elementary grades were not entirely neglected. The recommendations of the History Ten covered grades 5-12. In 1909 a committee of the AHA issued a report recommending a curriculum for grades 1-8, and the committee that produced the 1916 report later recommended an elementary curriculum not very different from that of the 1909 report. These recommendations evolved into a pattern that was eventually ordered and rationalized by Paul Hanna (1963) as "expanding communities."

Other committees and commissions focusing on the social studies followed the 1916 group, but only one was of comparable scope--the NEA Commission on the Social Studies. Launched in early 1929, it was "to be the most elaborate and comprehensive commission in the history of the social studies, although, as it turned out, not the most influential" (p. 44). In contrast to the 1916 NEA committee, most members of the Commission were university educators. Their work resulted in publication of more than a dozen volumes throughout the 1930s; of high quality and great interest to social educators, the volumes "taken collectively . . . represented a major contribution to social studies education. But their impact was more individual than collective" (p. 49).

Professional Societies and the New Social Studies

Among the other major themes treated by Hertzberg are the role of professional societies in the social studies and the history of the new social studies movement. She traces the relationships of professional societies to social studies, relationships that have ranged from the high and continuing interest of historians to the relative indifference of economists and anthropologists. The history of the National Council for the Social Studies is detailed from its formation in 1921 to publication of its 1979 guidelines.

Criticisms of education in the 1950s are reviewed and analyzed, with particular emphasis given to the forces and influences that led up to the new social studies. A review of the development of the new social studies in the 1960s is followed by a critical analysis of the shortcomings of that movement. Included in Hertzberg's criticisms of leaders of the new social studies are the assertions that those leaders "knew so little about the past, . . . neglected or entirely overlooked the social upheavals of the 1960s, . . . [and] had only a highly selective exposure to the diversity and problems of the real world of the schools" (pp. 116-117).

Lessons for the Future

In a final section, Hertzberg summarizes the lessons to be drawn from the history she has reviewed. Among these are:

--Reformers must be fully aware of the complexities and realities of the school and the classroom.

--A historical perspective is a necessity; an international, comparative perspective is almost as important.

--The central role of social studies in the education of citizens in a democracy must be recognized and nurtured.

--Continuing attention must be given to how students learn.

--Efforts to clarify the relationship of the social sciences to social studies must continue, preferably with the help of the now-indifferent professional social science associations.

Finally, Hertzberg calls for new efforts to define the scope and sequence of social studies:

> Not since the beginning of the 1920s have social studies reformers attempted to suggest a scope and sequence for the social studies curriculum. The secondary curriculum today is still based fundamentally on the 1916 NEA report. No one really likes it very well, subsequent reformers have generally attacked it, but it endures . . . Since every school must have a curriculum scope and sequence and many schools are currently revising their own, it would be useful if some models were developed which could aid them. These should be characterized by statements of purpose and by clarity, brevity, and flexibility. One might be based on the 1916 pattern itself, by examining it to see at least how a new rationale for it could be reformulated. But we need alternative models as well (pp. 178-179).

The Current State of Social Studies

The Current State of Social Studies represents the culmination of a substantial part of the efforts of Project SPAN staff and consultants. The three NSF studies described earlier provided an excellent starting point for these analyses. Those studies were minutely reviewed and discussed by consultants and staff. Following this, an extensive search and analysis of other relevant literature was conducted. The broad experience of SPAN consultants and staff also provided an important part of the data base for the project.

The report is divided into six sections, each focusing on one important facet of social studies education: rationales, goals, and objectives; curriculum organization; curriculum materials; teachers; instructional practices; and barriers to change in the field.

Rationales, Goals, and Objectives

In this paper, Irving Morrissett and John Haas provide a broad and integrative analysis of the interrelated topics of rationales, definitions, "approaches," goals, and objectives of social studies. They argue that a rationale for social studies must take account of the nature of the individual, society, values, knowledge, and learning, and that knowledge of these entities should be integrated into the curriculum goals and objectives that form the basis of the curriculum content and methods. They point to confusion that exists about the nature of rationales and to the paucity of real rationales.

The authors next discuss definitions and the "identity crisis" of social studies and present three "approaches" to social studies, concluding that "conservative cultural continuity" is, and for a long time has been, the dominant approach. There follows a detailed discussion of the most common goals and objectives. Citizenship is the most common single goal proposed; knowledge, skills, values, and participation form the most commonly proposed goal set. Other goals are also discussed. Problems caused by the multiplicity of new topics and rising concerns about the scope and sequence of social studies are reviewed. Finally, the authors suggest ways in which rationales, goals, and objectives can be more coherently formulated and used to improve social studies.

Curriculum Organization

In the second section of the volume, "Curriculum Organization in Social Studies," James Lengel and Douglas Superka describe the typical pattern of social studies programs from kindergarten through grade 12, stating that despite numerous variations that have occurred, the dominant pattern throughout the nation is one that was established more than 60 years ago. The typical K-6 pattern is built on the "expanding environments" theme, while the curriculum in grades 7-12 consists of a pattern of U.S. history, world history, civics, and government. There is little articulation between grade levels, particularly between elementary and secondary grades. Reasons given for the persistence of the pattern described include the strength of tradition, the reinforcement of the pattern by textbook content, and the lack of a compelling alternative pattern.

Curriculum Materials

John Patrick and Sharryl Hawke are the authors of "Social Studies Curriculum Materials," the third section of the volume. They describe the great extent to which students, teachers, administrators, and the public accept and rely on curriculum materials as essential aids to teaching, learning, and classroom management. Foremost among curriculum materials are textbooks, which are used in the great majority of classrooms; they are seen as cost-efficient and easy to select, order, and manage. Compared to textbooks, supplementary materials, including films, filmstrips, and workbooks, have slight use. Other than test materials, materials developed by individual teachers and local committees also are of relatively little importance.

Turning to an analysis of textbook content, the authors note that most competing texts for particular subjects and grade levels are very much alike in format, style, and content. The texts typically stress the transmission of information, avoid sensitive subjects, and, according to some content specialists, lack intellectual depth. Some notable changes have occurred in the past 20 years, particularly in the treatment of women and minorities and in the use of color and graphics. Changes in the amount of attention given to controversial topics and to variety in learning activities have been less extensive. Some of these changes are attributable, at least in part, to the curriculum materials developed by the "new social studies" projects. The lack of greater change and diversity in textbooks is attributed in large part to the conservative nature of the textbook development process, which is described in detail by the authors. Particularly strong conservative forces affecting publishers are the practices of the 23 states that have statewide adoptions or adoption policies.

Teachers

In "Social Studies Teachers," Mary Vann Eslinger and Douglas Superka emphasize the general agreement with the proposition that the individual teacher is "the central figure," the "key," or "the magic ingredient" in the learning process. They also point to the paucity of ideas and data about why this is so and how this proposition can be used to improve education. Turning to more manageable subjects, they review a wide spec-

trum of data about the characteristics and perceptions of teachers. Included are demographic data related to age, sex, academic preparation, years of experience, and professional activities. These data show, among other things, the differences that typically exist between elementary and secondary teachers along these dimensions.

A review of studies of teachers' perceptions of the purposes of social studies leads the authors to conclude that elementary and secondary teachers, unlike their college-level counterparts, spend little time contemplating the goals of their activities; they are too preoccupied with problems of administration and management. A common goal is, of course, getting students to learn the material in the textbooks. Beyond this, where a common purpose can be found, it consists of socialization--in the sense of instilling acceptable classroom and school behavior, getting acceptance of the norms and values of society, and, to a lesser extent, in preparing students for successful participation in mainstream society.

Teachers' perceptions of their problems and needs are notably more precise than their perceptions of the goals of social studies. The most commonly perceived problems are students' poor reading ability and their apathy toward school. Many problems of a logistical nature also concern teachers; these include lack of time to teach their subject, lack of materials and equipment, and lack of good sources of information about new methods and materials.

Vann Eslinger and Superka also examine the problem of teacher dissatisfaction with their profession. While dissatisfaction with their role in education and in society has been common among elementary and secondary teachers in recent years--"teacher burnout" has become a common term--there is some evidence that this phenomenon is more pronounced among social studies teachers than among others.

Instructional Practices

In the fifth section of this volume, Verna Fancett and Sharryl Hawke present a detailed report on what teachers do: "Instructional Practices in Social Studies." They note that teachers teach the same subject in diverse ways, even when using the same textbook in the same school system. They report with regret, however, much less information is avail-

able on the varieties of teaching methods than on the central tendencies in teaching methods; they focus on the latter because of the greater availability of information.

Most instruction in elementary and secondary schools takes place in large groups, with relatively little use made--particularly at the secondary level--of small-group and individualized instruction. Ability grouping is fairly common in social studies, though less so than in mathematics and science instruction. A single teacher typically has responsibility for each class, with little use made of cluster or team teaching. Open space configurations seem to be more the preference of administrators than of teachers, who generally prefer the self-contained classroom. Much of teachers' time is occupied with administrative duties and the maintenance of discipline. Preparation time is generally considered to be inadequate, and the students' time on task in the classroom is substantially less than 100 percent.

Most of the time that students and teachers spend in the classroom is focused on the use of curriculum materials, particularly commercially published textbooks. The dependence on textbooks increases at the higher grade levels. Next in importance to the commercial printing press in educational technology is the school-owned "press," the duplicating machine, widely used for teacher-made worksheets and tests. Films and filmstrips are used by quite a few teachers. Overhead projectors receive somewhat less use, while other available devices--including records, audio tapes, videotapes, film loops, television, and computers--are used infrequently.

Lecturing, or "teacher talk," is the most common mode of instruction, increasing in importance from the lower to the higher grades. Various forms of teacher-led recitation or discussion are also common. Teaching modes in most classrooms rarely, if ever, include inquiry, discovery, values education, experiential and community-based learning, simulations, programmed instruction, and contracts. Teachers decide on which teaching practices and materials to use on the basis of many influences. The importance of expectations within the school and the community accounts in large part for the lack of great diversity that exists in teaching practices.

Barriers to Change

Lee Anderson presents in the last section of the volume a generalized thesis on "Barriers to Change in Social Studies," focusing on the fact that the "new social studies" had relatively little impact on the schools. He describes two necessary conditions for change in social studies and argues that neither of these existed with respect to the new social studies. First, he posits that a new approach can have widespread impact only if its philosophy, curriculum materials, and instructional practices become familiar to a large number of the nation's classroom teachers. The second necessary condition is that the philosophy, curriculum materials, and instructional practices of the new approach must be compatible with the culture of the school or, lacking such compatibility, the new approach must bring about changes in the culture of schooling such that the necessary compatibility is created.

Elaborating on the first necessary condition, Anderson describes four models of educational change, none of which meets that condition. Then, borrowing from Urie Bronfenbrenner's "ecology of human development," he describes the "nested structures" within which teachers are embedded--the immediate school environment, the family and community settings that affect the teacher directly, and the broader social setting of school district, state, and nation. All of these structures as they now exist, Anderson states, militate against acceptance of the philosophy, materials, and instructional practices developed in the new social studies.

Turning to the second necessary condition, the author argues that the approach of the new social studies was not congruent with the culture of the schools and was not able to change that culture. He lists a number of assumptions about students, teachers, and schools that formed the basis of the new social studies, explaining that these assumptions were in conflict with the culture of the schools. Anderson attributes these erroneous assumptions largely to the failure of university participants in the development of the new social studies to understand that culture.

The Future of Social Studies

This volume contains three papers in addition to this summary. The first, "Six Problems for Social Studies in the 1980s," contains detailed statements of the problems that SPAN staff and consultants believe should be on the agenda of social studies educators in the coming decade. The second section, "Desired States for Social Studies," describes desired states corresponding to the six problems. In the final section, recommendations related to each desired state are given. These include both general recommendations and specific recommendations addressed to particular groups of social studies educators. Below are listed the six problems, along with the related desired state and general recommendations. All are further elaborated upon in the following sections of this volume.

Student Learning

Problem: Many students leave school without the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are important and desirable outcomes of social studies programs. In addition, many students do not like or value social studies as much as other subjects.

Desired State: Students in elementary and secondary schools throughout the country are actively, enthusiastically, and successfully engaged in learning social studies. Appropriate to their respective grade levels and developmental abilities, the vast majority of students are learning the central concepts and relationships in social studies and the factual knowledge needed to develop those concepts and relationships. They are applying this knowledge as they examine social issues and develop the critical thinking, valuing, and social participation skills needed to be effective participants in society.

Recommendations: Student learning comes as a result of achieving the other five desired states. Therefore, no specific recommendations are given beyond those related to the remaining desired states.

The Culture of the School

Problem: The culture and organization of schools, especially at the secondary level, focus much of the energy of teachers and administrators on matters of management and control rather than on the teaching

and learning of social studies--particularly the teaching and learning of higher-level thinking skills, participation skills, and democratic values.

Desired State: The culture and organization of elementary and secondary schools reinforce and enhance the goals of quality social studies programs. The rules, decision-making processes, interpersonal relationships, management procedures, and physical settings of the schools reflect a positive, humane climate, but less positive realities of the political, economic, and social world are also examined, thereby providing students with a context and experiences that help them become effective and responsible participants in society.

Recommendations:

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators assume leadership in efforts to increase awareness and knowledge of the culture of the school and its impact on learning.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators initiate and support efforts to change those aspects of their school cultures that most inhibit and conflict with the realization of the goals of quality social studies programs, while striving to establish, maintain, and extend activities that reinforce those goals in students' school lives.

Teaching Practices

Problem: Instruction in social studies is generally characterized by lack of variety in teaching methods and evaluation practices, by limited kinds of learning experiences, and by inattention to the implications of educational research.

Desired State: Social studies teachers use a variety of instructional practices and materials to achieve the various objectives of their social studies programs. Enlightened by up-to-date findings of educational research and learning theory, they strive to make instructional practices and materials compatible with the needs and capacities of individual students and with the particular learning tasks at hand. While not all teachers are equally skilled in using a wide variety of instructional practices, very few rely primarily on lectures, recitations, and a single textbook. Social studies teachers use a variety of

evaluation methods designed to assess the progress of students, to diagnose the learning problems of individuals, and to assess and improve the social studies program.

Recommendations:

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators make systematic and continuous efforts to broaden their repertoire of instructional practices and materials, with a view to providing a variety of approaches suitable to particular learning tasks and to the needs and capabilities of particular students.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators take advantage of the diversity that already exists among faculties in order to provide students with a variety of teaching models, styles, and practices in social studies.

3. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators develop and use a variety of evaluation techniques to assess student learning and their social studies programs.

The Curriculum

Problem: The social studies curriculum--courses, materials, and content--is focused primarily on specific facts and broad conclusions from history and other social science disciplines rather than on critical thinking skills, social science concepts, values and attitudes, and social participation. The curriculum, moreover, is not based on student developmental needs and does not emphasize important societal issues and effective participation in the social world.

Desired State: The social studies curriculum in elementary and secondary schools enables students to understand and function in the real social world. Although specific programs and organizational patterns vary throughout the nation, each school's curriculum is based on a substantial amount of attention to each of the generally agreed-upon major goals of social studies: knowledge from history and the social science disciplines, critical thinking and interpersonal skills, values and valuing skills, and social participation. Moreover, the social studies curriculum attends to each of these dimensions: the needs and abilities of students, the concerns of society, and the nature of the disciplines (subject matter); past, present, and future perspectives;

and individual, societal, and global aspects. Each curriculum rests on a clearly defined rationale, with explicit objectives, a nonrepetitive pattern of topics and courses, and appropriate materials and activities. Local needs and resources are considered as individual curricula are developed, revised, and implemented on a K-12 basis, and a school's stated social studies curriculum and its actual practice are congruent.

Recommendations:

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators give renewed attention to reviewing, revising, and stating their views on the basic purposes and goals of social studies, taking into account all elements described in the desired state related to curriculum.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators examine their existing K-12 curricula, including their scopes and sequences and curriculum materials, to determine the extent to which the curricula are consistent with the basic purpose and major goals of social studies and include all the important elements of a comprehensive social studies curriculum.

3. Project SPAN recommends that support be given at all levels to the production of curriculum materials and teacher resources needed to address relatively neglected areas of the social studies curriculum such as critical thinking, social participation, societal issues, and student developmental needs.

The Social Studies Profession

Problem: Parts of the social studies profession, in varying degrees, are characterized by considerable disagreement on the most important goals and objectives of social studies and by a decided lack of direction, satisfaction, opportunities for professional growth, and constructive interaction among the various participants.

Desired State: All members of the social studies profession--teachers, supervisors, teacher educators, history and social science professors, curriculum developers, publishers, and others--have a common commitment to social studies education and work cooperatively toward its improvement. They also share a unity of purpose and belief in major goals for social studies. Although members of the profession are united in their efforts to achieve these goals, to strengthen social studies'

role in school curriculum, and to improve students' learning experiences, diverse views on how to accomplish these goals are welcomed and given fair hearing. These diverse views are reflected in practices throughout the profession. Working together, members of the social studies profession help to maintain high standards of performance, press for continued professional growth for all members, and provide constructive opportunities for members to interact among themselves, with professionals in other areas of education, and with noneducators.

Recommendations:

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies professionals engage in a continuing nationwide debate and dialogue about the basic purpose and directions of social studies. The purpose of the dialogue is to create one, or a small number of, statements about the rationale, goals, and objectives of social studies that will provide a sense of unity and direction for the profession.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies professionals and other educators strive to create settings in which constructive and cooperative work is fostered among social studies educators, other educators, and laypersons.

3. Project SPAN recommends that administrators and teachers recognize, encourage, and utilize the diversity and individuality that exists within the profession.

4. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators promote and support a series of role exchanges to improve communication and understanding among various members of the profession.

Public Support

Problem: There is insufficient public support for and understanding of social studies programs that are balanced, judicious in responding to special interests, supportive of democratic values, scientifically and educationally sound, and relevant to the present and future lives of students.

Desired State: School board, parents, citizen groups, and the general public actively support social studies programs in the schools. They are aware of the nature and importance of social studies in the education of young people, and many are involved in helping to provide

meaningful experiences in social studies in their local schools. Social studies teachers and supervisors are engaged in frequent and constructive efforts to inform and involve the public in social studies. Most members of the public realize that many aspects of social studies lead to controversies that can contribute to the growth of good minds. They are supportive of efforts to present all sides of controversial issues, both in the schools and in public forums.

Recommendations:

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators conduct systematic efforts to demonstrate the nature and importance of social studies to the public.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators actively involve members of the public in their social studies programs.

Potential for Progress

Throughout the process of specifying problems and desired states for social studies, SPAN staff and consultants were careful to keep sight of improvements that have occurred in the past 20 years:

--Textbooks have improved in content, format, and treatment of women and minorities.

--The dominant curriculum pattern has proved flexible enough to accommodate some modern social concerns.

--Variety in teaching methods has increased somewhat.

--Many persons have become engaged in the search for direction and purpose in social studies.

Overall, SPAN consultants and staff believe great potential exists for the improvement of education in general and of social studies in particular. Throughout the country are many excellent social studies teachers and programs and many schools where creative, imaginative instruction is carried out; these teachers, programs, and schools can serve as examples for others. Most school-age children are now in school, presenting educators with the challenge of turning young people's zest for life into zest for useful and interesting learning experiences. There is a strong base of support for public education in general, if not in all of its particulars. And the important changes that have already taken place in our educational system--although viewed by many

educators as too little--offer promise of greater changes in the future, if educators can outline an effective course of action and demonstrate its feasibility.

Working Papers from Project SPAN

The papers collected in this volume did not fit neatly into the two major volumes produced by Project SPAN--The Current State of Social Studies and The Future of Social Studies. The papers vary considerably in terms of purpose, level of detail, length, and topical focus. The papers were also prepared at various times during the course of Project SPAN, with some being written as early as 1979. While these papers influenced the thinking of SPAN consultants and staff, they represent, to a greater extent than other SPAN publications, the personal observations, interpretations, and opinions of particular authors.

The papers are organized into two categories. The first group deals with the current state of social studies, paralleling and elaborating the SPAN publication on that subject. The second group contains four diverse and rather radical approaches to improvement of social studies. The third and final section of this volume contains a complete bibliography of references consulted during the course of the project.

Current States

The first paper in the volume is "Evaluation in Social Studies," in which Dana Kurfman presents a very broad view of evaluation. The purpose of evaluation, he states, is "to help those involved in education make sound decisions." He includes among educational decision makers teachers, administrators, students, parents, school boards, and legislators. Kurfman cites three types of decisions as being based in varying degrees on social studies evaluation procedures--decisions related to instruction (specifically, decisions related to grading and diagnosis); decisions related to selection and placement; and decisions related to programs and curriculum. Use of various evaluation procedures and practices in relation to these types of decisions is reviewed. Included are a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests and a review of the characteristics of commer-

cially produced social studies tests. Kurfman indicates that in spite of the quantity and diversity of evaluation procedures available to educators, typical practices are rather narrow and unsophisticated.

John Patrick, in "Junior High School Students' Learning in Social Studies," gives a succinct summary of research findings on junior high students' perceptions of social studies and their knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Some suggestions for improvements are made and some particular research needs are identified. Mary Vann Eslinger's paper, "Senior High School Students' Attitudes Toward Social Studies," dwells primarily on the interest, attitudes, and motivation of students with respect to social studies, as documented in the NSF studies. Her conclusions are rather negative, but not entirely so.

The next two papers address various factors that affect social studies teachers and teaching. In "Profession, School, and Community," Fred Newmann points to three important factors affecting the climate of schools. His major theme is why social studies does not exhibit the characteristics of professionalism to a greater extent. He also describes how the exigencies of management and control in the schools restrict depth and diversity in the teaching of social studies and explains how and why controversial issues typically receive little attention.

Douglas Superka, in "Money, Mandates, and Managers," describes three addtional effects on social studies. Federal government funding, he notes, has had some effect on social studies curriculum materials and, to a lesser extent, on social studies teachers. State and local laws and guidelines have had substantial and highly varied effects: many states mandate certain social studies topics and courses and many states adopt texts at the state level. Administrators and supervisors at state and local levels also have varied influences on social studies programs: chairpersons are usually quite influential, building principals may be, and local and state supervisors are generally seen as having rather minor influence.

In the final paper in the first section of the volume, Bruce Tipple briefly reviews "Educational Change Processes in Social Studies," describing some models of curriculum development, information dissemination, and teacher training and noting some of the successful and unsuccessful aspects of these models.

Alternative Approaches to Social Studies

The first paper in the section on social studies futures is "A Social-Roles Approach to Social Studies," by Douglas Superka and Sharryl Hawke. It presents an organizing framework for social studies that could serve as an alternative to the dominant pattern that has existed for 50 or 60 years. This paper is a condensation of a separate volume, Social Roles: A Focus for Social Studies in the 1980s, which is described later in this summary.

In the second paper of this section, "Concepts and Skills: Social Studies in 2002," James Lengel presents an imaginative scenario dated in the year 2002. This report to a revived education directorate of the National Science Foundation describes how a new approach solved many of the problems of social studies described in the 1982 SPAN reports. The new approach is a focus on concepts and skills. Lengel describes how this approach has affected curriculum, instructional practices, research, and the handling of problems and issues.

In the third paper of this section, Fred Newmann describes three very specific changes he feels are essential to achievement of good social studies programs. One change involves students: they should be involved in community-based problematic inquiry. Another focuses on teachers: they need circumstances conducive to development of their own professionalism. The third recommendation calls for a reduction in the size of large schools as a necessary condition for improving school climate.

The final paper of this section, by John Michaelis, is "Desirable Characteristics of Social Studies/Social Science Education." In sharp contrast to Newmann's paper, Michaelis presents a broad, eclectic checklist of items that planners of social studies programs should consider, organized under the headings of rationale, focus, goals and objectives, K-12 program, and supporting elements.

Social Roles: A Focus for Social Studies in the 1980s

A number of different approaches to social studies could be advocated as the means of achieving the SPAN desired states. This volume offers one possible focus for social studies that the authors believe

can help in resolving the problems and achieving the desired states that have been described. This focus is called "social roles."

In the first section, "A Perspective on Social Roles," each of the social roles--citizen, worker, consumer, family member, friend, member of social groups, and self--is described, and the contribution of social studies to those roles is explained and illustrated. Also included are a justification for the approach and an explanation of how it can help alleviate the six problems and achieve the desired states identified by Project SPAN. This section concludes with a brief summary of other curriculum orientations similar to the social-roles approach and answers to several questions concerning the implications of this approach for the present social studies curriculum.

The second section, "Using Social Roles to Organize K-12 Social Studies," shows how this framework might be used as the basis for a K-12 curriculum. The section begins with a brief explanation of the importance of curriculum organization in improving social studies. This is followed by a description and illustration of a new way to organize elementary (K-6) social studies, based on the social roles. Possible curriculum implications for secondary social studies are then explained and illustrated. A brief summary of the advantages of a social-roles approach for K-12 social studies concludes this section.

"Social Roles: The Main Ideas" presents a succinct, point-by-point description of the main ideas related to each of the seven social roles. Listed for each role are ten or more main ideas that could be emphasized in the social studies curriculum; these ideas are drawn from a variety of sources in education and the social sciences. This list constitutes the initial step in identification of the conceptual substance of a social-roles curriculum.

The publication concludes with "Social Roles: Relating the Main Ideas to Topics and Courses," which illustrates how social roles can be used as a basis for refocusing existing secondary social studies courses. The authors identify topics and courses in which each of the main ideas for the social roles can be effectively taught without completely revising the scope and sequence of high school social studies.

SIX PROBLEMS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE 1980S

Introduction

The year is 1978. The event is a state-of-health examination. The referring physician is the National Science Foundation; examining physicians are the Project SPAN staff and consultants. The patient is social studies education.

Reports accompanying the patient are perplexing. His* curriculum organization is reported to be stable and strong, but his instructional practices are thought to be aging. Some prior examinations suggest that his curriculum materials are more alert and functional than ever; others suggest external appearances are masking important deficiencies. Reports of neglected relationships with his fellow curricular areas are numerous, as are observations about his inability to relate to his lay public. Some reports express grave concern about the signs of poor health among students with whom the patient has had contact. Other reports suggest that his students are in improving health since their recent treatment with basics education.

The examining physicians begin their work with commitment, but they are worried. Can an accurate diagnosis be made? Is the patient suffering minor afflictions, or is he terminally ill? Is a remedy available? Can it be effectivaly administered in time to assure recovery?

Although the initial activities of the SPAN project were not as dramatic as the above scenario suggests, the charge to the project to assess the current state of social studies education had some noticeable similarities to a comprehensive medical examination. We began, as do most physicians, by looking at the separate parts of the body social studies. For examination purposes we analyzed the state of health of eight critical elements: rationale, goals, and objectives; curriculum organization and content; curriculum materials; instructional practices; teacher characteristics; student characteristics; evaluation; and influences on the curriculum and classroom.

---

*Male pronouns have been chosen to personify social studies education solely for convenience.

To arrive at a diagnosis for each element, we drew on past state-of-health reports, particularly the literature review, national survey, and case study research commissioned earlier by the National Science Foundation and described in the introduction to this publication. However, we also used other research and theoretical information in professional journals and books that updated or expanded on the NSF studies. In addition, we drew heavily on the experiences and insights of the SPAN examining physicians, whose collective knowledge helped make sense of data which often conflicted or confused.

Our examinations of the separate parts of social studies education resulted in a series of current-state reports on each of the critical elements; these reports are contained in another volume. In writing those reports we realized that the patient was much more than the sum of his parts. Therefore, our separate diagnoses were used as the basis of a holistic look at the patient--how the functioning of his parts was affecting his overall condition. From this process it was clear that the patient could not be given a clean bill of health. Although the examining physicians identified a myriad of minor ailments, in the final diagnosis the patient was pronounced to be suffering from six major problems--problems general and critical enough to warrant attention in the 1980s. It is these six major problems which this chapter addresses.

As a preface to statements of the six problems, a word should be said about our views on the accomplishments of American schools. Much of a positive nature can be said about the schooling of Americans. We have a high level of literacy, a high and increasing average number of years of schooling, students who show a zest for growth in certain aspects of their lives, many fine educational materials, a broad base of public support for education, and many creative and dedicated educational personnel at all levels of education. (Other positive aspects of our educational system, related specifically to developments of the past 20 years, are described on pp. 42-44).

Nevertheless, there is widespread criticism of the state of education in the United States--on the part of much of the public, of many educators, and of SPAN consultants and staff. Like many other recent studies of American education, SPAN focused on shortcomings and potential for improvement. While the heralding of positive accomplishments might be good for our collective ego, and perhaps has been neglected in recent

years, only an analysis of shortcomings and a vision of potential are likely to bring about improvements.

Briefly stated, the problems we have identified are:

1. Student Learning: Many students leave school without the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are important and desirable outcomes of social studies programs. In addition, many students do not like or value social studies as much as other subjects.

2. The Culture of the School: The culture and organization of schools, especially at the secondary level, focus much of the energy of teachers and administrators on matters of management and control rather than on the teaching and learning of social studies--particularly the teaching and learning of higher-level thinking skills, participation skills, and democratic values.

3. Teaching Practices: Instruction in social studies is generally characterized by lack of variety in teaching methods and evaluation practices, by limited kinds of learning experiences, and by inattention to the implications of educational research.

4. The Curriculum: The social studies curriculum--courses, materials, and content--is focused primarily on specific facts and broad conclusions from history and other social science disciplines rather than on critical thinking skills, social science concepts, values and attitudes, and social participation. The curriculum, moreover, is not based on student developmental needs and does not emphasize important societal issues and effective participation in the social world.

5. The Social Studies Profession: Parts of the social studies profession, in varying degrees, are characterized by considerable disagreement on the most important goals and objectives of social studies and by a decided lack of direction, satisfaction, opportunities for professional growth, and constructive interaction among the various participants.

6. Public Support: There is insufficient public support for and understanding of social studies programs that are balanced, judicious in responding to special interests, supportive of democratic values, scientifically and educationally sound, and relevant to the present and future lives of students.

These problem statements helped us clarify and refine our desired states and provided a framework and focus for making recommendations for

improving social studies. The problems are stated broadly in order to paint a general picture of major needs in social studies.

Before these problems are presented in greater detail, three points need to be clarified. First, the data analyzed by SPAN and the reactions of social studies educators throughout the country indicate that these are problems for social studies "generally" throughout the nation. They are not necessarily, however, serious problems for every school or social studies program in the country. The SPAN current-state reports also indicate some instances of teachers, programs, and schools that are doing exciting and positive things in social studies. Individual schools and districts need to determine the extent to which these six problems exist in their particular circumstances.

Second, these are not new or unique problems. Indeed, a historical review of social studies education prepared for the SPAN project by Hazel Hertzberg (1981) makes clear the cyclical nature of perceived problems and attempted solutions in social studies education. The memories of many social studies educators will also attest to the reappearing or continuing nature of these problems.

Finally, these problems are not unique to social studies. They plague other subject areas and all of education in some respects and to some extent. However, by attempting to specify the unique relationship of the problems to social studies education, we hope to point the direction for recommendations that will address the problems and improve social studies education in the 1980s.

Problem 1: Student Learning

Many students leave school without the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are important and desirable outcomes of social studies programs. In addition, many students do not like or value social studies as much as other subjects.

Results from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) give useful indications of what social studies students do and do not know. Most students have some knowledge of the basic features of U.S. government and the major events in U.S. history. For example, most 13-

and 17-year-olds know that "the purpose of the Declaration of Independence was to declare the colonies free from Great Britain." However, fewer can correctly identify "a reason that the American colonies rebelled against Great Britain" (NAEP 1978b, pp. 8-9). Most 13-year-olds can name the current president and vice president and know that Congress is composed of two houses. However, the majority do not know their senators, governors, and congressmen or that there are two senators from each state in the U.S. Senate (NAEP 1976, p. 76).

The situation is not significantly different in other subject areas (for example, see Hansen 1977, pp. 61-80; Flieger 1977; Wiley 1977, p. 247), nor with respect to social studies skills and attitudes. Most students are able to employ basic social studies skills such as identifying sources of information and reading simple graphs, but are not able to interpret more complex tables and graphs, make logical inferences from data, or identify the central problem discussed by a group of speakers (NAEP 1978b, pp. 17-28). In the area of political attitudes and values, most students express support for basic democratic values such as constitutional rights, representative democracy, respect for the rights of others, the need for laws, and equal opportunity for all (NAEP 1978a). There are, however, numerous indications that student behavior is not consistently based on these values. Moreover, the proportions of junior and senior high students expressing positive attitudes toward human rights and democratic values declined from 1969 to 1976 (NAEP 1978a, pp. 7, 15).

Thus, the knowledge, skills, and values of social studies students appear to be inadequate, with little or no improvement occurring in recent years. With few exceptions, comparisons of NAEP scores from 1969 to 1976 and 1972 to 1976 and MAT (Metropolitan Achievement Test) scores from 1970 to 1978 reveal the following results for social studies knowledge, skills, and attitudes: little or no improvement for elementary students, no improvement and slight declines for junior high students, significant declines for high school students (NAEP 1978a; NAEP 1978b; Copperman 1979). Reference to a different data base--reviews of research--leads to similarly discouraging news related to attitudes and values. Programs designed to improve students' political attitudes, values clarification abilities, and levels of moral reasoning have not demonstrated substantial success (Ehman 1977; Ehman 1979; Leming 1979; Lockwood 1978).

Finally, students do not like social studies very much and do not believe the subject is very important to their lives after school. While there are exceptions, most of the research evidence from questionnaires and observations points to widespread lack of student interest and motivation (Wiley 1977, pp. 203-204; Stake and Easley 1978; Weiss 1978, p. B130; Wright 1979, pp. 7-10). Student lack of interest, indifference, and boredom seem to be prevalent in social studies classes, especially at the secondary level (Stake and Easley 1978; Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979a, pp. 12-13).

To some extent, these negative feelings are related to secondary students' general lack of interest in school and academic pursuits. But even within that context social studies does not fare well. Four out of five secondary social studies teachers see lack of student interest as a "serious problem" or "somewhat a problem," compared with two out of three secondary science teachers (Weiss 1978, pp. B128-130). Also, secondary students believe that social studies is less useful and less important to their future needs than English and math (Wiley 1977, p. 204; Wright 1980). This low rating of social studies is not confined to junior and senior high school. While elementary teachers do not report significant problems with lack of student interest in social studies (Weiss 1978, p. B129), primary and intermediate students seem to like social studies less than any other subject (Wright 1980). In Goodlad's study of schooling, for example, 73.6 percent of the primary students said they like social studies, but 86.6 percent said they like science, 86.1 percent reading, 76.1 percent math, and 94.5 percent art. While 80 percent of the intermediate students said they like art, the percentages were 57 for science, 56 for math, 45 for reading, and only 35 percent for social studies (Wright 1980).

Clearly, lack of student interest and learning in social studies is a major problem to be addressed in the 1980s. Why does this problem exist? Explanations may lie in descriptions of the five other problems facing social studies education.

Problem 2: The Culture of the School

The culture and organization of schools, especially at the secondary level, focus much of the energy of teachers and administrators on matters of management and control rather than on the teaching and learning of social studies--particularly the teaching and learning of higher-level thinking skills, participation skills, and democratic values.

This problem is not unique to social studies. The power, stability, and complexity of the school and classroom culture were largely underestimated or ignored by curriculum reformers in the 1960s and 1970s. This reality, however, pervades, influences, and often hinders academic pursuits--particularly efforts to bring about change--in the elementary, junior, and senior high schools. This important conclusion from the classic studies of the past decade (for example, Sarason 1971; Jackson 1968; Cusick 1973; Lortie 1975; Goodlad and Klein 1970) has been confirmed by recent studies (for example, Stake and Easley 1978; Serow and Stike 1978) and analyses (for example, Holman 1980; Grannis 1980; Anderson 1982).

Schools, especially at the secondary level, are characterized by a high degree of specialization, hierarchy, transient relationships, work based on coercion or extrinsic (rather than intrinsic) rewards, and major emphasis upon institutional maintenance, which often conflicts with high-quality service for "clients." The central force underlying the school culture is its commitment to socialization--preparing young people to be good students for the following grades and good citizens in adult society, with emphasis on the existing norms and practices (Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979a, pp. 11-12). Within the school, this means teaching students to respond promptly to bells, to respect school property, and to obey school rules. Within the classroom, this includes teaching students to pay attention to directions, to be quiet during class presentations, to submit assignments on time, to respect the rights of other students, and to obey the teacher's rules.

Consistent with these efforts at socialization, teachers and administrators devote considerable time and energy to maintaining order and

discipline and managing groups of students. Often, the teaching of subject matter is either sacrificed (e.g., to take attendance, to issue late slips, or to stop a student from daydreaming) or used as a management device (e.g., by using class time to have students write answers to the questions at the end of a chapter) (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 16:25). In addition to such overt efforts at socialization, most aspects of the "hidden curriculum" convey similar messages (e.g., the physical setup of the classroom, the teacher's benevolent authoritarian posture, and the authority structure of the school). Teacher-to-student interaction is the dominant mode of communication rather than a combination that includes, for example, student-to-student or student-to-teacher interaction (Marker 1980, pp. 74-76; Fielding 1981).

Many other aspects of the school culture affect students and do not necessarily enhance academic learning, including learning in social studies. These include the sheer size of many schools, fragmented time schedules, and the nature of tests and grading systems. While teachers, administrators, and community members may share a commitment to the effective socialization of students (Stake and Easley 1978, pp. 19:5-7) and the maintenance of a benevolent authoritarian structure, their diverse positions in the system sometimes result in conflicts in immediate goals. These conflicts surface clearly in the planning of field trips, for example. A teacher would like to have students engage in a community-based activity, but the principal is worried about transportation and lawsuits, the assistant principal about accurate attendance records, and the counselor or other teachers about students' missing other classes.

Such elements of the student subculture as friendships, sex, sports, and other extracurricular activities also turn attention away from organized learning efforts ("Sex Rated Below Friends, School, and Sports" 1979). The fragmentation of effort may be intensified in a large school where it is impossible to relate to and know everyone personally (Panel on Youth, President's Science Advisory Committee 1974, pp. 154-156). Development of a humane climate and sense of community in large schools may also be more difficult, thereby hindering identification with the school, turning attention away from the central goal of schooling, and possibly encouraging vandalism and violence.

While all curricular areas feel the restrictions and demands of the culture of the school, social studies is unique in the degree to which it finds its learning objectives in conflict with that culture. Social studies is charged with teaching the fundamentals of democracy, yet schools are (perhaps necessarily so) authoritarian systems. The highest-level skill and value objectives in social studies call for students to become active, participatory decision makers, yet there is little opportunity within the school setting for these skills to be practiced and evaluated. Consequently, while teachers of other subject areas may find their teaching objectives limited by the school culture, social studies teachers must confront with their students the ever-present discrepancy between what they preach (democratic principles) and what they are required to practice.

Problem 3: Teaching Practices

Instruction in social studies is generally characterized by lack of variety in teaching methods and evaluation practices, by limited kinds of learning experiences, and by inattention to the implications of educational research.

The dominant methods of instruction in social studies are lecture and discussion/recitation based on textbooks (Weiss 1978, pp. B64-67; Stake and Easley 1978, pp. 13:59-66; Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979b, p. 151; Patrick with Hawke 1982; Fancett and Hawke 1982). In a typical social studies lesson, the teacher assigns students a section of the text to read, follows with a recitation based on the reading, informally lectures on the topic, engages students in a discussion that involves students' answering questions, or has students complete written worksheets in class or as homework. While some of these materials include decision-making and valuing questions, little social studies instruction engages students in using a variety of materials or participating in active experiences such as role plays, action projects, or inquiry activities, either in or out of the classroom. Most instruction in social studies occurs in large-group settings with little use of small-group or individual approaches (Weiss 1978, p. 111).

The evaluation practices most commonly used in social studies classrooms tend to reinforce the dominant instructional practices. The predominant evaluation procedures are objective and essay tests, assessment of participation in class discussions, and grading of student papers (Wiley 1977, p. 79). An examination of the kinds of tests, homework assignments, and class discussion tasks commonly used indicates that teachers evaluate students on only a very narrow range of variables, primarily low-level cognitive operations such as recall of information and application of concepts (Rappaport 1978, p. 91). Generally avoided in evaluation are synthesis and evaluation, reasoning skills, and critical and creative thinking. Although paper-and-pencil tests can measure higher-level thinking operations, most teacher-made tests in fact do not (Stake and Easley 1978, pp. 15: 14-20).

In recent years, considerable research on learning and student development has been done, but few social studies teachers are aware of or influenced by the results of such research (Wiley 1977, p. 9). While Shaver (1979) and others have compellingly pointed out the dangers in trying to apply the results of educational research to classroom practice, some recent research syntheses suggest useful principles for instructional improvement. One such example is an article by Peter Martorella in Social Education which offers several research implications for instruction; for example, "The use of questions organized in some logical sequence in teaching has a significantly positive effect on learning compared to alternative approaches. . . . In addition, increasing the amount of time given for students to respond to questions tends to improve the quality of responses" (Martorella 1979, pp. 599-601; see also Rowe 1978, pp. 271-298).

Responsibility for the failure to make use of such research lies in part with researchers who do not effectively communicate the results and implications of their work to teachers, in part with teachers who are unreceptive to the work of "those people in ivory towers," and in part with the lack of opportunities for researchers and teachers to interact with each other. Whatever the reasons, most instruction in social studies (and other areas) is not based on or responsive to students' cognitive and social developmental needs and abilities, as these are revealed by research.

There are many reasons for teachers' heavy reliance on textbooks, for the lack of variety in their instructional practices, and for their inattention to new research. Although some teachers complain about the reading levels of texts, most teachers generally like to use textbooks (EPIE 1976, p. 23; Klein, Tye, and Wright 1979). Textbooks help teachers organize the various bodies of knowledge they teach, particularly if they must teach disciplines other than those in which they have formal training. In an era of concern about "back-to-basics" and proficiency testing, the text is an accepted, concrete resource for student learning. While many materials incorporating varied learning activities have been developed, few preservice or inservice training programs have emphasized practical ways to use these techniques. Teachers told case-study investigators that their resource people "largely did not know the realities of their classroom situations" (Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979a, p. 16).

Teachers who know about and are predisposed to use a variety of instructional practices may find it difficult to do so. Seldom do teachers have role models to emulate, having studied under college professors who primarily lecture. New teachers' models are generally restricted to other teachers on their school faculty, most of whom have a very small repertoire of teaching strategies. Difficulties are also posed because many of the instructional practices that involve students in active learning require a substantial amount of preparation time (Wiley 1977, p. 309). Teachers also express concern about the frustrations that may be experienced by students who cannot deal with the tasks involved in active learning (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 12:7).

Perhaps the most important reason for teachers' use of a limited range of activities is fear that inquiry and action-oriented practices will make the management and control of students too difficult. Teachers' primary concerns "center on classroom management and socialization--the matters that must be handled to survive each day and [to] gain and maintain respect in a social system made up of other teachers, administrators, parents, and students" (Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979b, p. 152). In general, the strategies teachers use are "those that are considered to be safe in the classroom, the school, and the community. The more innovative teachers seem to sense how far out they can go and do not cross that line" (Fancett and Hawke 1982).

In pointing up the failure of many social studies teachers to use a variety of instructional practices, we are not suggesting that this situation is limited to social studies teachers. Indeed, all three NSF studies indicate that the condition also exists in other discipline areas. Similarly, in noting teachers' failure to use varied methods we are not suggesting that instructional variety is necessarily the solution to all problems of instruction. However, the value and importance of variety in stimulating student interest and learning has been demonstrated in social studies (Tucker 1977) as well as in general teacher-effectiveness research (Rosenshine and Furst 1971).

Problem 4: The Curriculum

The social studies curriculum--courses, materials, and content--is focused primarily on specific facts and broad conclusions from history and other social science disciplines rather than on critical thinking skills, social science concepts, values and attitudes, and social participation. The curriculum, moreover, is not based on student developmental needs and does not emphasize important societal issues and effective participation in the social world.

The social studies curriculum today is based on a pattern of topics and subjects that was established more than 50 years ago (Lengel and Superka 1982; Hertzberg 1981). The content and organization of these courses are not likely to encompass ideas and skills focused on the current and future needs of students and society (Wiley 1977, pp. 80-115; Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979b, pp. 151-152). Instead, they focus on topics, facts, places, time periods, and broad conclusions of history, giving little emphasis to social science concepts, critical thinking skills, and social participation. Perpetuating these curriculum characteristics are commercially published curriculum materials that present information to fit traditional expectations (Patrick with Hawke 1982).

The traditional curriculum gives little recognition to the developmental characteristics and needs of students. Subject matter is placed at various grade levels with little regard to what is known of children's

cognitive and social development. Courses in world history or world geography, for example, are taught to seventh-graders, who are engaged in an intense period of self-discovery.

Over the years, particularly the past 15 years, the curriculum has been challenged by many attempts to bring social science, current issues, and social concerns into the curriculum. The Wiley literature review contains nine single-spaced pages of topics and subjects that have been adopted by one or more schools, including legal education, multicultural education, career education, and consumer education (Wiley 1977, Appendix A-4, pp. 24-32). These topics have been thought by many to be worthy, legitimate additions to social studies, and considerable attention has been given to infusing their messages into existing courses. However, with some exceptions--attention to ethnic diversity in particular--schools have made only temporary commitments to such topics, replacing them after a trial period with traditional courses or gradually reducing the time devoted to them. The curriculum has not facilitated the inclusion of these courses.

From a practical standpoint, few incentives to change the curriculum pattern exist, while many forces weigh against change. Laws in 41 states require that American and/or state history be taught at elementary, secondary, or both levels. Civics or government is required in 31 states at one or both levels (Henning et al. 1979, pp. 52-56). Perhaps the strongest force supporting the status quo is tradition. With a 60-year history behind it, the present curriculum pattern is comfortable and comforting to social studies teachers, administrators, and parents, most of whom experienced the pattern themselves as students (Lengel and Superka 1982).

Aware of existing laws, examinations, and traditions, publishers produce commercial materials that fit with and support the status quo. Paul Goldstein, who made a critical study of textbook development, writes, "The surest, least costly way to succeed with new materials is to follow the patterns successfully established by materials already in use" (Goldstein 1978, p. 5). The result is limited alternatives for teachers; if they wish to break the curricular pattern, they must write their own materials. Few choose to do so (EPIE 1976, p. 8).

What we have, then, is not a nationally imposed curriculum, but "a locally accepted nationwide curriculum" (Shaver, Davis, and Helburn

1979a, p. 24). Despite numerous calls to reorganize the social studies curriculum, few comprehensive K-12 curriculum organizational schemes have been advanced, and none has been adopted widely (Schneider 1980, pp. 13-17).

Problem 5: The Social Studies Profession

Parts of the social studies profession, in varying degrees, are characterized by considerable disagreement on the most important goals and objectives of social studies and by a decided lack of direction, satisfaction, opportunities for professional growth, and constructive interaction among the various participants.

Precollege teaching is a relatively isolating activity. Teachers generally work alone with their students; only rarely do they work together in team teaching arrangements or on cooperative, education-related tasks. Although about half of the social studies teachers in the RTI study felt that lack of articulation between teachers of different grade levels was a problem (Weiss 1978, pp. B129-130), few attempts to achieve coordination were reported in the case studies (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 13:29).

Most teachers have few sources of information or new ideas that they see as accessible and reliable. They rate other teachers as their best sources of information about educational developments, even though they have few opportunities for professional communication with their peers (Weiss 1978, p. 9). Teachers do not consider their administrators or supervisors very useful or helpful, nor do they highly value inservice consultants or professional organizations (Weiss 1978, p. 119). Relatively few social studies teachers belong to professional organizations (Wright 1979), and fewer than 10 percent of teachers in the RTI study viewed teachers' associations as a valuable source of new educational ideas (Weiss 1978, p. B119). The 17,000 members of the National Council for the Social Studies constitute a small portion of the estimated 150,000 to 200,000 teachers of social studies.

At teaching levels other than elementary and secondary there is also little interaction. The relationship between teacher educators and

other college professors is characterized by limited communication, some distrust, and lack of mutual credibility; a similar relationship exists between college professors and precollege teachers. Although publishers of social studies materials communicate with some teachers, most teachers never have an opportunity to work with curriculum developers. Nor do they come into contact with educational researchers, except possibly as subjects in studies; seldom are they asked to consult on decisions about what questions to research--consultation that might improve research by making it more relevant to teachers' interests and needs and to school realities (Shaver 1979).

A major factor contributing to the lack of constructive communication is the existence of isolated subcultures within the profession--groups of elementary teachers, secondary history teachers, teacher educators, and curriculum developers, to name a few. Interaction among the various subcultures is inhibited by differences in needs, values, and reference groups, as well as by the well-established pecking order among different levels of education, which places graduate teaching at the top and elementary teaching at the bottom. Members of the various subcultures are most often brought together in settings that reinforce a "pecking order"; for example, precollege teachers take college classes to learn from college professors, while college professors seldom participate in classroom teachers' sessions at professional meetings. The differences in interest and values among members of the various subcultures and the peck-order phenomenon clearly overshadow the common concern for effective social studies education, dividing the profession into special-interest cliques.

For teachers, lack of opportunity for constructive interaction is compounded by limited opportunities for personal growth, advancement, and renewal. The proliferation of articles in both professional and popular magazines concerning teacher frustration and "teacher burnout" points up the acuteness of this problem for all teachers. Another reason for burnout that emerged from the NSF case studies is the myriad demands placed on teachers:

> Teachers are at times expected to be surrogate parents, grandparents, siblings, priests, therapists, wardens, biographers, babysitters, and friends. They are intermediaries for the school [in which they are] expected to

> feed the hungry, restore the deprived, redirect the alienated, energize the lethargic, and calm the hyperactive, as well, of course, as educate the ignorant, train the naive, and inspire the downhearted. Many enjoy the challenge. Others are frustrated (Stake and Easley 1978, pp. B:15-16).

Compounding the pressure to meet diverse student needs are burgeoning requirements to keep records and write reports. "I always thought the main goal of education was teaching kids; now I find out that the main goal is management," complained a veteran teacher (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 16:55).

Although such frustrations are common to teachers in all subject areas, it is disconcerting to find that social studies teachers seem to be suffering more acutely than other teachers. Goodlad's study of 38 schools found that fewer social studies teachers feel satisfied with their profession than do teachers of other subject areas. In assessing their job performance, social studies teachers were only mildly satisfied with their teaching performance in any of nine specific categories (Wright 1980). These conclusions are consistent with the RTI finding that fewer social studies teachers than other teachers believe their subject is useful to students (Weiss 1978, p. 158).

At all levels of the profession there continues to be confusion about the basic purpose of social studies. Classroom teachers are concerned about the usefulness of social studies for their students. The continuing debate in the professional literature about what social studies is, or should be, reflects the theorists' inability to agree on basic purposes (Morrissett and Haas 1982). As the debate continues, pressures from the back-to-basics movement and directives for accountability are forcing local educators to define their goals and objectives for social studies. Meanwhile, new topic areas continue to bombard the field, leading to situations such as the one described in an NSF case study:

> Unfortunately, social science is too often seen as a synonym for a collection of courses--often lacking a sequential development--a course here and a course there (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 10:8).

Looking at these data, we are left with the impression of a profession which is diffused in its goals and directions, which lacks construc-

tive channels of communication, and in which there is little sense of "profession" among its various subcultures.

Problem 6: Public Support

There is insufficient public support for and understanding of social studies programs that are balanced, judicious in responding to special interests, supportive of democratic values, scientifically and educationally sound, and relevant to the present and future lives of students.

Social studies suffers from a variety of conflicting attitudes and responses on the part of the public. On the one hand, there is strong public support for the teaching of certain social science and history subjects. For example, in a 1979 Gallup poll, the public rated two social studies courses--civics/government and U.S. history--among the top four "essential subjects" (Gallup 1979, p. 40). U.S. history and government courses are the subjects most frequently required for high school graduation (Weiss 1978, pp. 23-24).

On the other hand, there is evidence that social studies is not seen as being very useful--for example, as being less useful for later life than English, mathematics, commercial courses, shop, and extracurricular activities (Gallup 1978, p. 44). Still another aspect of the public's low esteem for social studies is the decline in attention and support given to social studies in the elementary grades; much of this neglect is attributable to public concern for reading and computation skills. Substantially less time is devoted to social studies than to reading or math in the elementary grades, particularly in grades K-3 (Weiss 1978, pp. 50-51; Lengel and Superka 1982). Informal reports indicate that in some districts elementary social studies programs are fighting for their very existence.

One reason for the low value placed on social studies may be that most citizens' views of the subject reflect their own school experiences. Like today's students, adults do not recall that social studies was useful to their lives after school. Moreover, while people may lend verbal support to citizenship goals (a central aspect of social studies, presum-

ably furthered by the study of history and government), the overwhelming majority of the public spend little time in citizenship pursuits (Marker 1980, pp. 79-80).

When strong public interest in social studies is shown, it is often the interest of a small group, focused on a particular topic or subject. Special-interest groups have made intensive efforts to secure more space in the curriculum for certain topics or subjects and to inject certain views into those areas of study--often without consideration for how those topics and views fit into the total social studies curriculum. The efforts of special-interest groups with respect to ethnic groups, women, and free enterprise are examples.

Some special-interest pressures on the curriculum are directed toward censorship. While sex education and evolution controversies have sometimes been directed toward social studies instruction, censorship battles in social studies have been staged more commonly over values education, patriotism, and teaching about religion. The Man: A Course of Study (MACOS) furor is one which will be long remembered in social studies history.

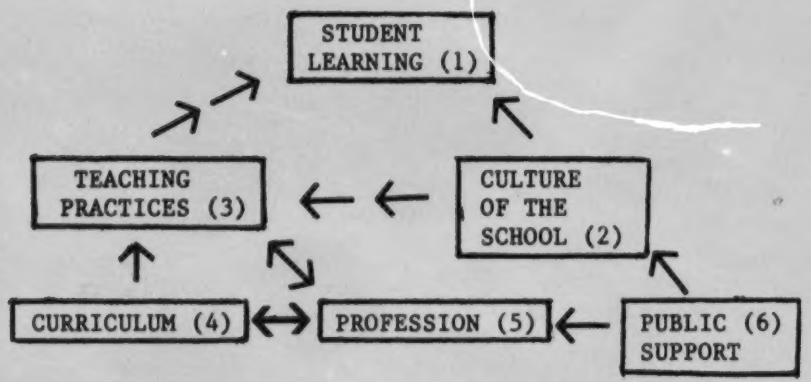
Thus, the social studies profession has failed to communicate effectively what a broad and balanced social studies program is and can be and its crucial importance at all levels of education. This failure has resulted in the narrow view of social studies held by many people. Social studies professionals have seldom made clear to the public the importance of social studies in helping students examine political and social issues; to understand the influence of such problems as classism, racism, and sexism on their lives; to value diversity in an interdependent world; to resolve personal problems; and to make rational decisions about their private and public lives. Thus, social studies retains public support for only a small portion of the kind of program most educators agree is desirable.

Interrelationships Among the Six Problems

While these six problems have been described and explained separately, they are highly interrelated. Figure 1 illustrates Project SPAN's conception of that interrelationship.

Figure 1

INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE SIX PROBLEMS



While many more arrows could be drawn, we have restricted the number to indicate the tendencies and directions of influence we believe to be the strongest. As the figure shows, we believe that students' lack of interest and learning of social studies is the fundamental or ultimate problem; the other five problems are related and contributing factors.

Instruction, mostly teacher-led and classroom-based, and the culture of the school are considered the two most direct and potent influences on student learning and attitudes in social studies. In addition to having direct effects on student learning, the school culture exerts great influence on the nature of social studies instruction. Demands for socialization and control, for example, discourage elementary-level teachers from using curriculum materials that do not rely heavily on "seatwork" activities.

The social studies curriculum and profession, in turn, have a direct impact on instruction and on one another. Courses, curriculum guides, textbooks and other materials, curriculum planning, teacher-training programs, and professional conferences are examples of ways in which curriculum and the profession interact with each other and with classroom instruction. Finally, the public--through government agencies, special-interest groups, community groups, and personal involvement--exerts direct influence on both the social studies profession and the school culture. These are the principal interrelationships; still others could be specified.

Examining two relatively recent movements in the light of these interrelationships produces the following interpretation. The "new social studies" reform efforts of the 1960s and early 1970s emanated primarily from university-based disciplinary academics and from some teacher educators within the profession (#5). Responding partly to post-Sputnik social forces, these groups focused much of their efforts on developing new curricula (#4) which they hoped would change instruction (#3) and improve student learning (#1). The new social studies focused some attention on inservice training of teachers (#5 and #3), but almost completely ignored the public (#6) and the culture of the school (#2)--which may help to explain the limited impact of the new social studies. New materials were produced, and some teacher educators, state supervisors, and publishers were very involved. Widespread impact on instruction (#3) and student learning (#1), however, was not achieved.

The "back-to-basics" movement, on the other hand, emanated primarily from dissatisfaction of the public (#6) with student learning (#1). The cries for a return to basic skills (reading, writing, and math) had a direct impact on the social studies profession (#5)--for example, in a reemphasis on history and government and a return to hardcover texts--and were consistent with the dominant goals and values of the school culture (#2). Many teachers, frustrated by students' inability to read at grade level, shared these goals and supported the basic-skills movement. The result was that instruction (#3) and student learning (#1) have been more affected by the back-to-basics efforts than by the new social studies efforts.

The major implication of this analysis for Project SPAN, or for anyone else hoping to improve student learning in social studies, is that all five of the other factors--profession, curriculum, instruction, culture of the school, and the public--must be considered. None--especially the culture of the school and the public--can be ignored if the goal is to be achieved.

Some Positive Results of Recent Efforts to Improve Social Studies

Acknowledging the existence of these problems does not imply that nothing good has happened in social studies in the past 20 years. The following are examples of some of the positive changes that SPAN has identified:

--Although there is still a heavy reliance on textbooks as the predominant content organizer and instructional tool in the classroom, textbooks have improved significantly over the past 25 years, as measured by various criteria. Nicholas and Suzanne Helburn wrote of the breakthrough in course design made by the new social studies project developers, listing among those accomplishments more carefully delineated learning objectives, the use of powerful conceptual and analytical structures, and careful attention to the construction and sequencing of learning activities (Helburn and Helburn 1978, pp. 23-25). In a study of U.S. and world history textbooks, Fetsko found some evidence of such innovations in current texts. More so than the texts of the 1950s, recent texts include the ideas, structures, and methodologies of the social sciences and history, attitudes and value issues, inquiry teaching strategies, clearly stated objectives, and cross-cultural studies (Fetsko 1979, p. 52). Textbooks today portray females and various racial and ethnic groups in ways that reflect the social diversity of the American people better than past textbooks did (Patrick with Hawke 1982).

--Although the dominant K-12 curriculum organization in use today is very similar to that which was put into place 60 years ago, it has proved flexible enough over the years to accommodate social changes and concerns. The Wiley literature review lists nine pages of course titles and topics found in schools, including multicultural, environmental, consumer, law-related, and career topics (Wiley 1977, Appendix A-4, pp. 24-32). While the use of separate courses for these topics is not widespread, the evidence suggests that within the traditional K-12 pattern, schools have attempted over the past 25 years to broaden the base of social studies beyond history, government, and geography. Many educators feel positive about this responsiveness of the curriculum to social changes and concerns.

--Although lecture and recitation are the most-often-used instructional strategies among social studies teachers, other methods of teaching are used by most teachers some of the time and by a few teachers most of the time. Shaver, Davis, and Helburn write, "The case studies reveal much unimaginative teaching. But there are also examples of brilliant, inspirational teaching" (1979b, p. 153). Textbook-based instruction has probably become more varied and flexible than in the

past; today's textbooks suggest a wider range of activities than did those of earlier vintage (Fancett and Hawke 1982; Patrick with Hawke 1982).

--Although there has always been disagreement in the field of social studies as to its central purpose, many persons are now involved in the search for purpose. By virtue of accountability directives that require school districts to specify their learning expectations and how they plan to measure results, teachers and administrators are now involved in defining goals and objectives for social studies; in earlier times the task was assumed to belong to academicians and others outside the school. Admittedly, the task often leaves educators frustrated and complaining, but it is forcing more members of the profession to specify what social studies intends to do and how the success of these efforts can be measured.

Potential for Future Progress in Social Studies Education

Looking at both the current problems of and the recent improvements in social studies education leads us to speculate about the potential for future progress in the field. Have recent improvements been significant enough to lend hope that other improvements are also possible, even probable? Or are the problems of such magnitude that they preclude any substantial "fixing"? SPAN consultants and staff, like many other observers of the educational landscape, believe there is great potential for the improvement of education in general and of social studies in particular.

Our belief in the potential for improvement of education rests on many observations. First, despite the shortcomings of many schools and programs, many others are demonstrably better. Throughout the nation are compelling examples of outstanding teachers teaching in creative and effective ways. Some model curriculum programs have been designed to keep social studies vital and effective; these programs have been implemented in ways that please teachers, students, and parents. Scattered across the country are schools that have found practical ways to decrease management and control functions so that students can experience more-flexible in-class and out-of-class learning. If these teachers and

schools are accomplishing these goals, there is good reason to believe other schools can make comparable improvements.

In students themselves we also find cause for believing improvement is possible. Although student achievement in social studies is not uniformly as great as we would like, a significant number of students today are excelling beyond the achievements of their predecessors. Similarly, even though student valuation of and interest in social studies are not as great as we would like, some students do like social studies and find it of worth. Students also show great zest for learning and participating in other aspects of their lives--sports, music, friends. Thus, we are not struggling with a "defective" input--we simply need to utilize the students' natural enthusiasms in their social studies learning.

We also take hope from the fact that public education still retains considerable public support. Since 1950, per-pupil expenditure, in real terms (adjusted for inflation), has tripled (Historical Statistics 1975, pp. 210, 368, 373; Statistical Abstract 1980, pp. 140, 141, 487). While public officials are more carefully scrutinizing public expenditures for education, and schools are being held increasingly accountable, public support is still there and will probably continue for the foreseeable future.

Finally, despite what initially appears to be great resistance to change, education as an institution is capable of change. For example, 100 years ago less than 5 percent of the high school age group could be found in school, with all the rest already out of the system and at work; now nearly all--90 percent--receive a high school diploma and are found in and around the school through age 17 or 18 (Coleman et al. 1974, p. 80). This has required many accommodations in the operation of public schools. Students who formerly would have dropped out of school upon encountering academic or behavioral problems now stay in school; for the most part, schools have been successful (though not always eager) in finding effective programs to deal with such students. More recently and more swiftly, with the passage of one federal law (PL 94-142), millions of handicapped students who once would have been placed in special schools or no schools are now being provided educational opportunities in regular classrooms. The fact that education has been able to move

from an institution for the elite to an institution for the masses helps allay fears that no change is possible.

Progress in education seems not to come in the rapid, dramatic manner that we see in science and technology. Yet the potential is as real. By learning from the experiences of past reform efforts and squarely facing our current problems, we can utilize the unrealized potential of students, teachers, schools, and the institution of education itself to bring about not just change, but indeed progress.

DESIRED STATES FOR SOCIAL STUDIES

Introduction

In the preceding section, the assessment of social studies' state of health was likened to a comprehensive medical examination. The diagnosis identified six major health problems. As in medical practice, the diagnosis of ailments in education is often easier than the cure. But educators, like good physicians, have no desire to abandon a diagnosed patient without attempting treatment. So the next step for Project SPAN was to move the patient from examination to treatment.

The first procedure in the SPAN therapy was to determine just what state of health we would like the patient to enjoy--if he could recover to his most robust, what would his condition be? How would he function? Thus the project set about determining a desired state for social studies--a full and complete recovery. This chapter describes the desired state, or more specifically the set of desired states, we evolved.

Considerable time was spent during the project deciding how to decide what desired states should be put forth. Ultimately it was concluded that the desired state of social studies education would be reached by reversing or remediating the six general problems identified previously. The desired states proposed for social studies in the 1980s therefore parallel those six problems.

At this point, it is useful to acknowledge an important shortcoming in the analogy between social studies and an ailing patient. Whereas an individual may be brought to a good state of health and maintained in that state until death eventually comes, a social institution can continue to exist and improve indefinitely.

In undertaking to specify "desired states" for social studies, Project SPAN does not intend to picture a state of affairs which, once achieved, will remain forever perfect--and static. Paradoxically, desired states should be viewed as setting achievable goals and, at the same time, indicating directions for movement toward goals that are forever changing and receding. Human thought and imagination can never perceive the ultimate ends of human endeavor.

The desired states are stated in the present tense, as though describing conditions that actually exist at some time in the not-too-distant future, when the fragile wisdom of the present has interacted with the uncertainties and realities of the future to create a state that, in retrospect, will appear to be progress and, in prospect, will point to still-better states to be accomplished.

The picture presented here is based on certain assumptions that may turn out to be quite erroneous. It is assumed that, for some time in the future, there will continue to be in the United States a typical setting in which most students go through the grades from kindergarten through grade 12; that there will be a configuration of elementary, middle, junior high, and senior high schools not much different from that of the past few decades; that most education will take place in public-school classrooms in which student-teacher ratios vary between 20:1 and 30:1; and that school curricula will continue to offer reading, writing, mathematics, natural science, social studies/social science, and other familiar subjects. Any or all of these assumptions might be overturned in the next 10 or 20 years by electronic technology or other technical or social metamorphoses. The desiderata described here assume no such radical changes; within the existing framework, they are radical enough.

Each desired state is presented first in a brief, summary statement of the desired state, followed by an elaboration of that state. Read in their entirety, the six desired states present a vision of an ideal state of social studies education.

Desired State: Student Learning

Students in elementary and secondary schools throughout the country are actively, enthusiastically, and successfully engaged in learning social studies. Appropriate to their respective grade levels and developmental abilities, the vast majority of students are learning the central concepts and relationships in social studies and the factual knowledge needed to develop those concepts and relationships. They are applying this knowledge as they examine social issues and

develop the critical thinking, valuing, and social participation skills needed to be effective participants in society.

Students in elementary and secondary schools are learning fundamental knowledge in social studies. This knowledge includes major facts, concepts, generalizations, and theories from history, political science, geography, economics, sociology, psychology, and anthropology, in addition to well-selected and closely-related knowledge from humanities and philosophy. Students also display a keen and deep awareness of cross-cultural and global perspectives as they learn about many social issues. In addition, students display ability to reflect historical perspectives, understand current issues, and consider future orientations. Their levels of understanding are dependent upon and related to their particular levels of cognitive development; their learning of social studies, in turn, facilitates their cognitive development from concrete to more abstract forms of thinking.

Students are able to examine historical and current social issues critically, displaying thinking skills such as asking critical questions, locating and analyzing information, making comparisons, and interpreting and evaluating data. Students can deal with written, oral, visual, and graphic data. As they progress through their social studies classes from kindergarten through grade 12, they learn more-complex applications of these skills. They are also learning decision-making skills, such as defining a problem or dilemma, considering alternatives, and choosing and justifying decisions. Interpersonal and valuing skills are also being learned; these include identifying the values of others, becoming aware of one's own values, seeing things from other people's points of view, and working effectively with others.

Social studies programs are enhancing students' understanding of and commitment to such basic democratic values as justice, freedom, equal rights, diversity, and responsibility. Students use the critical thinking and valuing skills learned in social studies to translate these values into specific definitions and policies and to resolve value conflicts in their personal and public lives. Students actively participate in the community and society and show the desire and the abilities needed to continue that participation after leaving school. In the development

of democratic values, social studies shares responsibilities with other subject areas, the school administration, the media, the family, and other agencies of society. Paralleling these shared responsibilities, social studies educators take initiative in communicating with these other agencies about common goals and the methods of achieving them.

As a result of the appealing and clearly stated goals of social studies and the varied and effective means of accomplishing the goals, students consider their social studies classes to be interesting, important, and useful--both in their lives as students and in their future lives and careers. Elementary students and teachers rate social studies as enjoyable and important parts of their school life. At the secondary level, the popularity of social studies is evidenced by the fact that students rate their required social studies courses as enjoyable and relevant and that social studies electives are among the most popular courses.

Desired State: The Culture of the School

> The culture and organization of elementary and secondary schools reinforce and enhance the goals of quality social studies programs. The rules, decision-making processes, interpersonal relationships, management procedures, and physical settings of the schools reflect a positive, humane climate, but less positive realities of the political, economic, and social world are also examined, thereby providing students with a context and experiences that help them become effective and responsible participants in society.

Social studies is taught in schools that are large enough to afford good services and facilities, yet small enough to foster a sense of community. Elementary schools have up to 300 students, secondary schools from 600 to 1,200 students. There is in these schools a good deal of staff and parent consensus about the major goals of schooling, so that students receive consistent messages about their obligations and rights. Rules are consistently enforced, and high expectations are held for the performance of all students.

Positive relationships between staff and students are developed, as teachers of different subjects work in teams with responsibility for a given group of students; as teachers spend time with students in activities in addition to instruction--in sports, music, counseling, trips, and dining together; and as teachers and students cooperate in maintaining the school and improving its facilities.

Communication and cooperation among students are ensured through emphasis on cooperative learning activities (e.g., teamwork in academic learning and group research projects), service to others (e.g., peer tutoring, peer counseling, and service to community agencies), group-based service to the school itself (e.g., teams of students responsible for care of the school's equipment, for hosting visitors, for production of assemblies, and for maintaining bulletin boards and displays of art in common areas). Flexible scheduling and grouping patterns make it possible for students to spend long periods of time working on projects such as renovation of a home, oral history of the local community, production of videotapes, research, service, and advocacy outside of school. Teams of teachers working with separate student groups each have enough autonomy to pursue their studies without frequent interruptions due to administrative concerns.

Students at the secondary level participate in the governance of the school through a variety of activities designed to elicit serious student input: class study and discussion of issues facing the staff and administration, assemblies highlighting issues of school policy, conducting surveys of student opinion, and spontaneous discussions with staff regarding school policies. These activities supplement and give substance to formal mechanisms such as student councils.

Teachers are held accountable for enhancing student learning. They are also expected to participate in the communal aspects of school suggested above, such as assemblies, clean-up, extra-curricular programs, and student counseling. Teachers are aware of how the school's organizational features and "hidden" curriculum can be modified to improve school climate.

There are frequent opportunities to publicly confirm a sense of community within the school. These opportunities might include regular assemblies, display of class pictures, school songs, public recognition

of outstanding achievements of students and staff members, attempts to help school members facing difficult personal issues (such as death in the family and serious illness), and celebration of events of special significance to ethnic groups in the school.

The school's sense of community, unity, and caring among students and staff does not suggest that standards of excellence in learning have a low priority. On the contrary, standards of excellence are a fundamental unifying factor, pursued within a supportive and cooperative climate, in which teachers and students learn to deal with the tension they may perceive between attempts to build cohesion and attempts to achieve individual competence. Similarly, the ethic of cooperation and unity is not allowed to stifle critical inquiry and criticism of the school itself, an area in which social studies classes have a special responsibility.

Desired State: Teaching Practices

Social studies teachers use a variety of instructional practices and materials to achieve the various objectives of their social studies programs. Enlightened by up-to-date findings of educational research and learning theory, they strive to make instructional practices and materials compatible with the needs and capacities of individual students and with the particular learning tasks at hand. While not all teachers are equally skilled in using a wide variety of instructional practices, very few rely primarily on lectures, recitations, and a single textbook. Social studies teachers use a variety of evaluation methods designed to assess the progress of students, to diagnose the learning problem of individuals, and to assess and improve the social studies program.

Social studies teachers use the most appropriate strategies and practices to develop important concepts, critical thinking skills, valuing skills, and social participation. To the extent possible, teachers also select and use the practices and strategies most appropriate to the learning styles and developmental levels of the students and to their

own teaching styles. With young students, for example, social studies teachers make extensive use of pictures and hands-on materials because of students' need to learn from concrete experiences. Many social studies teachers incorporate peer learning activities into their instructional practices, thereby giving students opportunities to learn from one another. These practices are consistent with recent findings on cognitive learning and student development.

Teachers commonly use a variety of didactic strategies to help students retain cognitive content. Advanced organizers are frequently used to help students structure their knowledge. Deductive and inductive strategies are used to teach concepts and generalizations. Opportunities for practice and experimentation with concepts are provided to help students internalize these concepts. Periodic practice and reinforcement activities are used in both concept and skill development. Information from a variety of media are used in all these activities; media employed include written narratives, graphs and tables, photographs, films, filmstrips, television, and tapes. Textbooks are still an important source of organized information and knowledge but are rarely treated as the ultimate and sole source of truth. Primary-source and case-study materials are used extensively to teach critical thinking and value-analysis skills. Role plays and small group discussions are frequently used in teaching value issues. To develop participation skills, teachers have students work on various projects individually and in groups in the classroom, school, and community. These activities include conducting surveys, conducting interviews, observing everyday experiences, working in businesses, and engaging in civic activities. While many teachers incorporate these out-of-school experiences into their regular classes, some schools have special courses in which students' primary experiences are in the community.

Teachers use a variety of evaluation practices to assess student progress and achievement of the major objectives of social studies programs. With the help and support of administrators and supervisors, needs assessments, diagnoses, ongoing formative evaluations, and periodic summative evaluations are conducted as an integral part of instruction in social studies. Valid and reliable tests--short-answer and essay types--are used widely but not exclusively. Analysis of student work

and systematic observation are also used to pinpoint strengths and weaknesses in student knowledge and skills. Interviews and attitude surveys are among the methods used to assess program strengths and weaknesses and to determine areas in need of improvement. While there is a considerable amount of evaluation activity, no evaluation is done without careful and prior thought as to how the results will contribute to student learning and to improvement of the social studies program.

Desired State: The Curriculum

The social studies curriculum in elementary and secondary schools enables students to understand and function in the real social world. Although specific programs and organizational patterns vary throughout the nation, each school's curriculum is based on a substantial amount of attention to each of the generally agreed-upon major goals of social studies: knowledge from history and the social science disciplines, critical thinking and interpersonal skills, values and valuing skills, and social participation. Moreover, the social studies curriculum attends to each of these dimensions: the needs and abilities of students, the concerns of society, and the nature of the disciplines (subject matter); past, present, and future perspectives; and individual, societal, and global aspects. Each curriculum rests on a clearly defined rationale with explicit objectives, a nonrepetitive pattern of topics and courses, and appropriate materials and activities. Local needs and resources are considered as individual curricula are developed, revised, and implemented on a K-12 basis, and a school's stated social studies curriculum and its actual practice are congruent.

The social studies curriculum throughout the nation reflects a healthy balance of unity of purpose and diversity of approaches. The ultimate purpose of social studies is to help students understand and function in the real social world--to be effective as individuals in society and to be thoughtful, responsible, and active participants in

our democratic society. The major goals of social studies flow directly from that purpose and include an integration of the key elements of good social studies curricula. Detailed goal statements direct substantial attention to the major goals of knowledge, skills, values, and participation. Social studies programs throughout the country reflect a synthesis of the best elements of the long-standing traditions of citizenship transmission, social science, and inquiry into social issues. A balance and integration of goals and approaches is not necessarily reflected in each unit, textbook, or even course, but it is achieved on a K-12 basis in different ways by different districts.

At the heart of each school's social studies curriculum is an operative statement of the program's goals and objectives. Written in a manner and level of specificity appropriate for that school's needs, this statement is directly related to the major goals of social studies that guide the profession and provides a framework for program courses, materials, and activities within the district. Preceding the development of the goals and objectives statement, or derived from it later, is a statement of social studies rationale, which provides the philosophical underpinning for the goals and objectives and relates directly to the ultimate purpose of social studies--to help students understand and function in the real social world. These rationale statements contain positions about the nature of the individual, the nature of society, the nature of values, the nature of knowledge, and the nature of learning.

Based on statements of rationale, goals, and objectives, the curriculum provides balanced attention to the areas of knowledge, skills, affective development, and social participation. Knowledge is drawn from the major facts, concepts, generalizations, and theories of all the social sciences and history and is presented to students through topics that both interest students and allow them to sense the complexities of the social world. Continuing attention is given to analyzing current social issues and trends that reflect the realities of social injustice as well as justice, conflict as well as harmony, diversity as well as unity. Skills, particularly those leading to higher-level critical thinking, are specified and stated in terms of outcomes measurable by a variety of techniques. From kindergarten through 12th grade, attention is placed on the development of attitudes that will help students become

more effective social participants. Included in the curriculum are opportunities for students to actually participate in their social world as well as to study about it.

The pattern of topics and courses that a social studies curriculum follows is based on the logic of the social science disciplines from which content is drawn, the developmental needs and abilities of students, the central concerns of society, and the resources available to the local school. The places, events, periods, and situations that students study are chosen and placed in the curriculum according to their contribution to the teaching of essential skills and concepts of social studies as well as to the broad understanding of the history of humankind. Students' study is apportioned among global, national, state, local, and self-related topics at all levels of schooling. Topics and issues are drawn from the past and present, with projections into the future.

Important influences on the selection of topics and courses in the social studies curriculum are the interests of students as well as their cognitive and social development abilities and needs. Although the research on student development does not provide definitive answers to questions of curriculum organization, attention is paid to findings on how students learn. This attention leads to placement of certain kinds of topics at certain grades. For example, topics that lend themselves to study via concrete objects and experiences are placed at the elementary level; topics dealing with the self are studied during early adolescence; topics providing a wider look at institutional systems are studied in later high-school years. At all levels, the topics included allow students to put their skills to use in practical situations and to receive feedback from the social environment.

Each school includes a study of major social issues and concerns in its social studies program. The particular issues and ways in which they are incorporated into the curriculum vary. Some schools have several separate courses focusing on current problems or social issues. Others deal with these issues within history or social-science-based courses. In any case, students are given opportunities to examine, research, and discuss key societal concerns from local to global settings.

The social studies curriculum also reflects the reality of the local school's resources. As much as possible, the curricular topics and

courses chosen utilize teachers' strengths and interests. Included as a part of social studies curriculum resources is the world outside the classroom. Teachers regularly use community resources such as museums and government offices in social studies instruction, calling upon private and volunteer support to supplement school funding. While continuing efforts are made to provide appropriate and up-to-date materials, the social studies program works within budget realities by long-term planning and careful utilization of expenditures for materials.

Recognizing the importance of curriculum materials in instruction, the social studies staff places high value on the search for and selection of appropriate and effective social studies materials. Varied instructional modes are represented in the materials used. In both textbooks and other kinds of supplementary materials, a mix of learning styles and teaching methods is available. At each grade level, students are exposed to instruction not only from the printed word, but also from photographs, paintings, music, speeches, realia, maps, globes, and charts. No single method or style of presentation dominates the materials used. The content of the materials similarly reflects the goals and objectives of the social studies program, with emphasis on stimulating student thinking rather than memorization.

While the development of curriculum is a multilayered process that includes participants both within and outside the school, it is the teacher who brings life to the curriculum and makes it an effective vehicle in the preparation of students for participation in the social world of their present and future. It is the teacher who decides how the topics and skills are taught to students in the class, who selects and implements materials, and who moves social studies instruction beyond the classroom walls.

Desired State: The Social Studies Profession

All members of the social studies profession--teachers, supervisors, teacher educators, history and social science professors, curriculum developers, publishers, and others--have a common commitment to social studies education and work cooperatively toward its improvement. They also share a unity of

purpose and belief in major goals for social studies. Although members of the profession are united in their efforts to achieve these goals, to strengthen social studies' role in school curriculum, and to improve students' learning experiences, diverse views on how to accomplish these goals are welcomed and given fair hearing. These diverse views are reflected in practices throughout the profession. Working together, members of the social studies profession help to maintain high standards of performance, press for continued professional growth for all members, and provide constructive opportunities for members to interact among themselves, with professionals in other areas of education, and with noneducators.

The members of the social studies profession have a strong sense of shared purpose and commitment to the major goals of social studies and to continual improvement in social studies education. There is a healthy diversity of approaches to achieving those goals. Advocates of these approaches have carefully articulated their approach by developing a rationale statement, learning objectives, scope and sequence, examples of curriculum materials, and classroom activities. This development has been encouraged by the intellectual climate within the profession, which fosters the creation of new ideas and provides forums for their review. When new ideas are put forth, they are carefully examined for intellectual soundness, practicality, and potential for enriching social studies instruction.

A positive rapport has developed among social studies educators through frequent and sustained working experiences. All recognize their shared assumptions and interests while also recognizing the ways in which their roles are naturally divergent. Each educator's role in social studies education is respected, and the expertise of various segments of the profession is sought when solutions to new problems are needed.

Members of the profession work together in numerous ways. For example, classroom teachers assist teacher educators in structuring and conducting methods courses. Teacher educators work with teachers in "action research" efforts aimed at identifying specific ways of modifying

classroom practices to facilitate learning. Supervisors function as consultant-coordinators in bringing together and articulating the concerns of teachers. Supervisors communicate these concerns to administrators and state department personnel and help to formulate and interpret responses to teacher concerns. Supervisors and campus-based teacher educators work together to use the resources of learning psychologists, social scientists and historians, curriculum developers, and laypersons to improve social studies instruction. The local, state, regional, and national organizations of social studies educators support and enhance the relationships of all segments of the profession. Their conferences and publications are seen as support services to local efforts and individual teachers.

In view of the importance of curriculum materials in social studies education, the relationship among curriculum developers and publishers and teachers, supervisors, teacher educators, and disciplinarians has been strengthened. Curriculum materials development, whether by special projects, commercial publishers, or local district personnel, is conducted by individuals who are well informed about and attuned to the alternative social studies approaches. Appreciating the value of diverse approaches to achieving the major goals of social studies, developers and publishers provide the alternative materials needed to implement the various approaches. Others in the profession work with commercial and special-project developers to assure that information about products reaches teachers seeking particular kinds of materials. Where local needs dictate unique approaches, special development efforts are supported by private and public funding efforts.

In the selection or development of curriculum materials, as in all other phases of their profession, social studies educators are acutely aware of the importance of remembering the overall purpose, the general rationale, and major goals of social studies. At the heart of all professional activities is awareness of, and periodic review of, the goals and objectives of social studies programs and of the rationale or rationales that support and direct those activities. Constantly considered are such questions as: What are the needs of individuals and of society that social studies can help to meet, and what do we know about the nature of individuals, society, knowledge, values, and learning that will both limit and facilitate our efforts to meet those needs?

Professional growth of social studies educators, another important dimension in social studies education, is fostered through both group and individual opportunities and activities. Growth opportunities for staffs or groups of educators are provided by districts, states, and national agencies. In these endeavors, usually taking the form of in-service sessions and workshops, attention is on the current and future needs of staff. Needs are determined by teachers and supervisors, who work together to design and sometimes conduct the sessions. An important function of these inservice experiences is to help career teachers keep current on new findings in student development, on new knowledge generated in the disciplines, and on new ideas for curriculum and instructional practices.

Not all professional growth is generated through group experiences. Recognizing that adults, like students, have different needs, the profession has focused attention on the importance of providing each teacher an opportunity to grow in a personally meaningful way. For teachers and other educators, renewal opportunities include role exchanges, travel, personal research, creative materials development, conference attendance, professional writing, and structured reading time. Administrators are well aware that such individualized renewal opportunities are critical in preventing burnout and dropout among career educators and give appropriate administrative and financial support for these efforts. However, each individual assumes responsibility for his or her own growth experiences and works with appropriate administrators and available resources to carry out his or her plan.

Having joined its members in a commitment to building and maintaining a strong position for social studies in the school curriculum and to continually improving students' learning experiences, the social studies profession has also taken the initiative in engendering public support for social studies instruction. Individuals and groups of social studies educators have opened and sustained various channels of communication with a variety of individuals and groups. From informal discussions with parents to carefully arranged presentations to community organizations and national audiences, public support has been sought and gained. Through open and positive communication, social studies educators have not only helped the public understand and support social studies' pur-

poses, they have also gained valuable insight and knowledge about ways of improving social studies instruction.

Underlying the commitment and activities in the profession is a recognition that social studies education is not a static institution. The profession embraces the dynamic nature of social studies and responds by constantly reviewing while analyzing and growing. Unity of purpose is sought while diversity of approach is welcomed. Communication is open. New ideas are viewed as challenges. This orientation provides the common focus and energizing spirit that keep social studies in the forefront of elementary and secondary students' education.

Desired State: Public Support

School boards, parents, citizen groups, and the general public actively support social studies programs in the schools. They are aware of the nature and importance of social studies in the education of young people, and many are involved in helping to provide meaningful experiences in social studies in their local schools. Social studies teachers and supervisors are engaged in frequent and constructive efforts to inform and involve the public in social studies. Most members of the public realize that many aspects of social studies lead to controversies that can contribute to the growth of good minds. They are supportive of efforts to present all sides of controversial issues, both in the schools and in public forums.

Under the leadership of the National Council for the Social Studies, the local and state councils and district social studies supervisors have established regular mechanisms for communicating with the community about the aims and practices of their social studies programs. The nature and significance of social studies are often explained and demonstrated to parents, school boards, and other members of the lay public. In addition, members of the local community are actively involved in the social studies programs as guest speakers, resource people, advisory group members, and facilitators of student experiences in the community. Indeed, the public shares with teachers and other educators a sense of

responsibility for helping students learn social studies. While various special-interest groups still work at the local, state, and national levels to achieve their special goals, they are restrained by teachers, administrators, and the public to recognize that special viewpoints have limited roles in the successful implementation of a broad, comprehensive social studies program.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE 1980S

Introduction

Having diagnosed the patient social studies and projected our ideal hopes for his recovery, the SPAN project faced the most difficult challenge of all--formulating recommendations for treatment. How could the ailing social studies be set on the road to recovery? What treatment could be recommended, especially considering the known limitations of knowledge and skills to cure the identified problems?

In creating and selecting recommendations for treatment, we applied two criteria--feasibility and desirability. Often these qualities are not equally achievable in a single recommendation. While accomplishing some recommendations is very desirable, the likelihood of doing so seems remote. Implementing others seems possible but would produce only slight improvement. The recommendations included in this chapter are those that the project staff and consultants feel have a reasonable degree of both feasibility and desirability. Not all are equally feasible; probably not all are equally desirable from various readers' perspectives. But each is important in closing the gap between social studies' current and desired states. Many more recommended actions could have been added, but the list has been limited to those seeming to have the most potential for bringing about desirable changes.

The recommendations are organized to parallel the six problems and desired states. The verb "can" is used in the recommendations rather than "should," suggesting that these recommendations are possible while avoiding an overly-prescriptive tone. For each desired state except student learning we present two or more major recommendations (indicated by numerals and underlining) specifying the broad tasks to be undertaken to move from the current to the desired state. Following each major recommendation is a series of specific recommendations addressed to particular audiences; these specific recommendations suggest how various segments of the profession can contribute to implementing the major recommendation. The order in which the audiences are listed generally reflects a judgment of which audience has the greatest responsibility or the greatest potential for implementing the recommendation. In most of

the recommendations, multiple objectives can be accomplished if the recommendation is implemented.

We are not suggesting that the recommendations will be easily accomplished, nor that they can be accomplished in a short period of time. Rather, these recommendations are viewed as the beginning of incremental changes in social studies education that will improve its state of health. Members of the profession can assess the usefulness of the recommendations and begin to implement those which have the most potential for bringing about desired changes in their particular circumstances.

Recommendations: Student Learning

Student learning comes as a result of achieving the other five desired states. Therefore no specific recommendations are given beyond those that are related to those desired states. These recommendations follow.

Recommendations: The Culture of the School

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators assume leadership in efforts to increase awareness and knowledge of the culture of the school and its impact on learning.

The first step toward minimizing the negative aspects and effects of school culture on student learning and moving toward the desired state of having the school culture enhance and reinforce that learning is to study school culture and its impact on teaching and learning. Awareness and understanding will not guarantee constructive change, but they are prerequisites to such efforts.

All persons involved in education--students, teachers, administrators, and others--must become more aware of the powerful influence that their particular school cultures have on the education and lives of students. Examining and understanding social systems and cultures is a central aspect of social studies. It is, therefore, reasonable for social studies educators to lead these consciousness-raising efforts in

the 1980s. Significant contributions to these efforts can be made by each of the following groups:

a. Social studies teachers can use the school and its culture as content for the social studies curriculum. Teachers in all grades can use examples and topics drawn from the culture, political system, and sociology of the school to illustrate such social studies concepts as authority, decision making, subcultural groups, rules and laws, rights and responsibilities, physical environment, and work roles.

b. Curriculum developers and publishers can develop activities and materials that enable teachers to more systematically include a study of school culture in the social studies curriculum. Topics that will fit into the present social studies curriculum include schools in different cultures around the globe, the changing nature of schools throughout U.S. history, the role of the state and federal governments in education, schools as social institutions, the cultural systems of schools, and the physical and cultural geography of schools.

c. Social studies supervisors, chairpersons, and other school administrators can lead efforts to identify the "hidden curricula" operating in their schools and determine the degree of congruence between explicit learning objectives and the implicit messages and values presented to students. Those aspects of the hidden curriculum that can be examined include strategies used by teachers to maintain order and control in the classroom, methods used in social studies instruction, relationships between teachers and administrators (especially in regard to making and enforcing school rules), the implicit messages conveyed by the organization of the social studies curriculum, and the physical structure of the school.

d. Social scientists and researchers can continue to develop and refine the tools needed to study the culture of schools and their hidden curricula. These tools include the concepts and methodologies used to examine schools as subcultures within a larger societal context and to identify elements and processes of the hidden curricula that intentionally or unintentionally affect teachers and learners.

e. Education professors and teacher educators can apply the tools developed to examine school culture and can provide inservice training and materials to help the schools study their cultures and hidden curricula and their resultant effects on student learning.

f. Funding agencies (including the federal government, but especially state and local governments and private foundations) can support research projects designed to study the culture of schools and their hidden curricula and to develop methodologies to complete that work. This effort can also include research synthesis projects that summarize the results of existing research related to the school culture.

g. All social studies educators seeking to make some changes in social studies education can focus their attention on how compatible a particular proposed change is with the existing culture of a school or of schools. Some consideration must be given to the effect of the school culture on that change, and vice versa.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators initiate and support efforts to change those aspects of their school cultures that most inhibit and conflict with the realization of the goals of quality social studies programs, while striving to establish, maintain, and extend activities that reinforce those goals in students' school lives.

School cultures are not easily changed. Schools will probably never become models or laboratories of democracy in action. Some steps can, however, be taken toward making the cultures of schools more conducive to developing thoughtful, responsible participants in our democratic society. In most schools, for example, it should be possible to move toward more openness, better communication, and more extensive cooperation between and among students, teachers, and administrators, while fostering appropriate degrees of autonomy, decision making, and personal achievement. Because social studies is centrally concerned with human relationships, social institutions, citizenship, and cultural change, social studies educators can contribute much to these efforts. Specific changes in school culture can best be determined and approached on a school-by-school basis.

The following examples indicate some actions that educators in various roles can undertake that would represent important changes in the cultures of many schools:

a. Social studies teachers can initiate cooperative learning activities to foster goals not often reinforced by the dominant use of traditional, individual classroom activities. These cooperative activities can include team learning, group research projects, group service projects, peer tutoring, and peer learning and counseling. Students may also work in teams on specific projects, including interdisciplinary activities and programs in which they study topics from several subject areas. Many current societal issues (e.g., the social and scientific aspects of technology, energy, and the environment) provide opportunities for interdisciplinary approaches.

b. Principals and other building administrators, with encouragement and suggestions from social studies teachers, can organize and conduct a variety of school-wide activities designed to build and enhance a sense of community and caring among the students and faculty. These activities can also emphasize social participation by students, the development of humane values, and critical thinking. Examples of such activities are assemblies, clean-up campaigns, fund-raising campaigns, and celebrations of special events, including those significant to different ethnic groups.

c. Social studies supervisors can work with building principals and other administrators to encourage and reward teachers for using interdisciplinary and cooperative learning activities in their programs. This can be done by providing inservice programs, modifying schedules, providing ample planning time, and giving recognition for these efforts.

d. School boards and superintendents can plan to keep school sizes small wherever possible. Social studies teachers can support these efforts by stressing the importance of small schools to developing a sense of community and identity. At the elementary level a reasonable limit is about 300 students. At the secondary level between 600 and 1,200 students may be the optimal size.

e. University researchers and teacher educators can work with teachers and administrators to provide support services for all the activities listed above. This can include conducting research on the impact of school-wide communal activities, interdisciplinary programs, cooperative learning activities, and small school sizes. Inservice programs can also be conducted on these activities and on building positive school climates.

f. Funding agencies can support research and demonstration projects designed to examine social studies programs within different school-culture settings. One area of study, for example, can focus on identifying, describing, and publicizing particularly comprehensive, strong social studies programs in elementary and secondary schools and on clarifying the interrelationships among various aspects of their particular school cultures and the positive elements of their social studies programs.

Recommendations: Teaching Practices

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators make systematic and continuous efforts to broaden their repertoire of instructional practices and materials, with a view to providing a variety of approaches suitable to particular learning tasks and to the needs and capabilities of particular students.

Considering the hours, weeks, months, and years that students and teachers spend in school, it can be argued that a variety of teaching practices and materials is valuable just to prevent monotony. But still stronger reasons for using various teaching practices and materials exist. First, different students respond to different types of stimuli; most students learn best by experiencing a variety of approaches. Second, student learning depends considerably on matching learning experiences with stages of cognitive and affective development. Finally, social studies encompasses a wide variety of objectives--knowledge, skills, values, and participation--which can best be learned through varying and tailoring teaching methods to learning tasks. The history of past reform efforts indicates that every social studies teacher will not suddenly use a wide variety of teaching practices skillfully, merely because there are good reasons for doing so. It is possible and important, however, for each teacher to make a determined effort to broaden and improve their practices, even if on a modest, incremental basis. Social studies teachers need to make the personal commitments to do this, and administrators, teacher educators, and others need to provide teachers with the necessary help and support.

The following actions are examples of the contributions that various groups of educators can make toward widening the range of instructional practices teachers use in social studies:

a. Social studies teachers can assess their own instructional strengths and weaknesses and make personal commitments to learning or improving on at least one new instructional technique each year. Attention can be directed, for example, to new discussion strategies, role playing and simulations, community-based activities, use of media, concept-development strategies, surveys, and case studies.

Each year, social studies teachers can provide their students with at least one special, long-term (several days or several weeks) learning experience that relates to important concepts, skills, valuing, or participation objectives and that is likely to be the kind of experience students will remember and talk about years later. Depending, of course, on the teacher and student, many types of activities could comprise such experiences--Bloom calls them "peak learning experiences"--including social action projects, simulations and role-play activities, peer-learning and cross-age teaching programs, community-based learning activities, and individual or group research projects.

b. Social studies supervisors can plan and conduct inservice programs that focus on the use of different instructional strategies and practices. These programs can include materials and activities that teachers can readily use in their classrooms. Wherever appropriate, teachers who are particularly skillful in a specific practice should help conduct these programs.

Social studies supervisors can also take advantage of opportunities to engage their teachers in programs that by their nature invite the use of different instructional practices. These types of programs include law-related education, values education, local history, community studies, multicultural studies, and global studies.

c. Preservice teacher educators at colleges and universities can instruct future teachers on ways of finding and using a wide variety of practices and materials, demonstrating these methods in their own teaching. Such instruction can include information about the barriers to the use of many methods and materials in typical school situations and insights on how these barriers may be overcome.

d. Publishers, textbook writers, and curriculum developers can include a much greater variety of instructional activities than is customary as integral parts of their curriculum materials, rather than as suggested (and often neglected) projects at the end of the chapter.

e. Researchers can focus more efforts on describing the actual nature of social studies instruction in various districts, schools, and classrooms. For example, observational and field studies describing the individual characteristics, instructional practices, and institutional contexts of the minority of teachers who do use a variety of practices effectively in social studies would be particularly useful.

f. Funding agencies can support research synthesis projects related to instruction in social studies. A meta-analysis of existing studies of the effectiveness of various instructional strategies and practices in social studies might be one example. Relating particular teaching practices to the learning styles of students might be another focus of study.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators take advantage of the diversity that already exists among faculties in order to provide students with a variety of teaching models, styles, and practices in social studies.

While lecture and recitation based on a textbook clearly characterize the dominant teaching practice in social studies throughout the nation's schools, there is also considerable diversity among teachers' individual styles of teaching, personalities, interests, values, and areas of expertise. Recently, a fair amount of research in education has focused on identifying and matching teaching styles with learning styles of students. The ideal may be to provide a precise match of teacher and learner, but the practical implementation of that goal seems remote. A more attainable objective may be to realize, clarify, and extend the diversity that already exists among social studies faculty in a school and to utilize that diversity to maximum advantage, so that each student has opportunities to experience a variety of models and styles of teaching. The following are some specific actions educators can take to encourage that practice in social studies:

a. Social studies teachers, principals, counselors, and others responsible for helping students plan their schedules can encourage students to take social studies from different teachers so that they can benefit from various teaching models, styles, and instructional practices during the course of their work in social studies.

b. Principals, supervisors, and others responsible for hiring new social studies teachers can make pointed efforts to build and maintain social studies faculties comprised of teachers who represent a diverse range of models and instructional styles.

c. Preservice teacher educators can use local social studies teachers who represent different models and styles of teaching as resource instructors for their methods courses.

d. Researchers can study the nature and effects of different models and styles of teaching at the elementary, middle/junior high, and senior high levels. This research can also focus on the reactions of students to the different types of teachers.

3. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators develop and use a variety of evaluation techniques to assess student learning and their social studies programs.

One of the major barriers to using different teaching practices and working toward various instructional objectives is the dominant use of factual recall tests as the major method of student evaluation. Teachers have not been provided with a variety of useful and practical techniques for evaluating student progress in developing critical thinking skills, social participation, and values. Primary accountability for both students and teachers still rests with grades based largely on written tests that stress recall of facts and on the scores from standardized achievement tests. Less emphasis needs to be placed on gathering standardized test data in social studies, unless it is used directly to make program evaluations and decisions. More emphasis needs to be placed on other means of gathering evaluative data, including attitude surveys, content analysis, observation, student self-evaluation, and oral examinations. Moreover, evaluation needs to be focused more on diagnosis of student needs and evaluation of programs, rather than solely on grading and rank-

ing students. The following are examples of what various educators can do to implement this critical recommendation:

a. Social studies supervisors and staff development specialists can plan inservice programs designed to teach social studies teachers how to develop items and evaluation strategies that assess critical thinking skills, conceptual understanding, and other areas not assessed by most teacher-made and many standardized tests in social studies. Social studies supervisors can work with evaluation consultants and teachers to develop a pool of test items that measure critical thinking skills and conceptual understanding in various social studies courses. Those items need to be keyed to the social studies objectives, weighted for difficulty, and shared with teachers throughout the district. Data from these items can be used for both program and student evaluation. Data on student attitudes and values can be used for program assessment but should not be used for grading students.

b. Social studies supervisors, chairpersons, and teachers can take steps to include social studies in district accountability efforts. A variety of evaluative data should be used to determine the quality of district social studies programs, including student test results, attitude surveys, classroom observation, content analysis of texts, and ratings of learning activities by panels of educators. Any minimum competency tests used in social studies need to reflect the full range of social studies skills and understandings. Emphasis on some at the expense of others will eventually distort social studies programs by forcing concentration on those areas covered in the test.

c. Curriculum developers and publishers can include in tests that accompany social studies materials items that measure critical thinking skills and conceptual understanding as well as those that test factual knowledge.

d. Social studies teachers can make an effort to use tests that include the measurement of critical thinking, conceptual understanding, learning skills, and participatory skills. They can also share the tests they have developed and information about tests they have used with other teachers.

e. Researchers and evaluation specialists in social studies can strive to develop practical techniques for evaluating behavior, values,

and participation skills. These techniques could include observation methods and instruments, attitude surveys, content analysis techniques, and other strategies that teachers can readily use in the classroom.

f. Social studies teacher educators at colleges and universities and in professional service organizations can develop and conduct inservice programs on evaluation methods that emphasize practical methods and materials that teachers and district personnel can use to evaluate their social studies programs.

g. College and university professors can provide prospective teachers with a course on evaluation methods as part of their preservice training. For elementary teachers, this course should cover methods of evaluating programs, materials, and student accomplishments without necessarily concentrating on particular subject areas. For secondary social studies teachers, the major focus should be on particular methods of evaluating materials, programs, and student progress in the social studies.

h. National and state social studies professional organizations and state departments of education can provide organized support for continuing, expanding, and improving the social studies section of the National Assessment of Educational Progress testing program. Items released by NAEP can be used more extensively in local evaluation efforts.

i. Developers and publishers of nationally standardized tests in social studies can provide sets of questions keyed to widely accepted social studies objectives. Data on the performance of well-defined groups of students should accompany the items. This type of testing service, rather than conventional standardized tests, would be useful to teachers for both grading and diagnostic purposes and to district consultants for program modification.

Recommendations: The Curriculum

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators give renewed attention to reviewing, revising, and stating their views on the basic purposes and goals of social studies, taking into account all elements described in the SPAN desired state for curriculum.

If effective participation in the social world is taken as the basic purpose of social studies and knowledge, skills, values, and participation are accepted as the major goals or goal clusters, social studies educators must elaborate these ideas and think through the ways in which this purpose and these goals can each have substantial representation in the K-12 curriculum. It is also important for curriculum planners to arrive at a well-thought-out rationale for the emphasis to be given to each of the four and the various dimensions of a comprehensive social studies curriculum.

The starting point for rational and effective curriculum planning is consideration of the ultimate or basic purpose and goals to be achieved. The SPAN desired state for the curriculum presents a useful and defensible place to begin such work. However, if other educators disagree with this view of the purpose and goals of social studies, the obligation remains to clarify whatever rationale, goals, and objectives they have for social studies. This phase of curriculum planning often gets short shrift in the hustle of curriculum planning and materials adoption. Rationales, goals, and objectives are not items to include in the beginning of curriculum guides and textbooks merely to satisfy a public-relations function. They must be considered and reconsidered as teachers, supervisors, and developers move through the process of determining the content, materials, learning activities, and evaluation procedures for their social studies programs. More time and thought devoted to purpose and goals at all levels of curriculum planning and implementation can lead to a more integrated and effective program of social studies.

a. Professional social studies organizations, particularly the National Council for the Social Studies, can exercise continuing leadership in urging and assisting social studies educators to elaborate their rationales, goals, and objectives so that they are consistent with the basic purpose of preparing effective participants in society, embracing all four types of goals.

b. District social studies consultants and curriculum committees can formulate statements of their district's commitment to the basic purpose and goals of social studies. Through publications, committees, and workshops, they can secure involvement in and commitment to the

district's position on the basic purpose and goals of their social studies program.

c. Social studies teachers can clarify and state their views of the basic purpose and major goals of social studies and participate in school and district-wide efforts to review the rationale, goals, and objectives of their social studies program.

d. College and university professors can include in their preservice courses more work on the rationale, goals, and objectives of social studies programs that can promote the basic purpose of preparing students for effective participation in the social world, through appropriate planning with respect to the goals of knowledge, skills, values, and participation.

e. Developers and publishers can include in their materials clear statements of the philosophy, goals, and objectives upon which they are based and which clearly promote the basic purpose of preparing students to be effective participants in society.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators at all levels examine their existing K-12 curricula, including their scopes and sequences and curriculum materials, to determine the extent to which they are consistent with the basic purpose and major goals of social studies, giving substantial attention to all the important elements of a comprehensive social studies curriculum.

It is not uncommon for elements of a curriculum to be constructed and to exist with little relationship to each other. Rationales, when they exist, may be so vague and general as to support any curriculum. Goals and objectives are often so broad and extensive as to give little guidance to the actual curriculum. The curriculum structure, in the form of a scope and sequence and/or a list of courses and topics, may be written by an ad hoc committee, put on the shelf, and forgotten. Curriculum materials, usually textbooks conforming to a national pattern, may have a limited relationship to locally chosen goals and objectives; as a consequence, what is taught in the classroom, following the text, may have a limited relationship to local goals and objectives. Finally, evaluation methods, based on standardized tests or on teacher-made tests

primarily related to the textbook, may have little relationship to the stated rationale, goals, and objectives of the school or district.

Concerted efforts need to be made, therefore, to see that the rationale, goals, and objectives clarified by social studies educators are indeed reflected in the actual content, materials, and activities of their social studies programs. The first step in this process is to examine existing curricula to determine the extent to which they deal with the four goals of knowledge, skills, values, and participation; are based on the needs and abilities of students and the concerns of society as well as the nature of the disciplines; focus on past, present, and future perspectives; and include individual, societal, and global aspects. The following are some suggested activities that various social studies educators can undertake to help implement this objective:

a. Social studies teachers can determine the degree to which their individual social studies courses, materials, and evaluation procedures contribute to achievement of the basic purpose and goals and include all the important elements of a comprehensive social studies program. They can make their views known in the planning and revision of school and district curricula and selection of materials.

b. District social studies supervisors and teachers, through ongoing steering or planning committees, can examine their district's K-12 social studies program to determine the extent to which it contributes to the basic purpose and goals of social studies. Included in the examination can be the district's social studies rationale, goals, objectives, materials, activities, and evaluation procedures. Strategies for redressing shortcomings and imbalances can be determined and implemented.

c. District administrators and boards of education can support professionally and financially the efforts of district teachers and consultants to define, revise, and implement social studies programs that are consonant with the basic purpose and goals of social studies.

d. Publishers can examine their social studies offerings to determine the extent to which the offerings contribute to the basic purpose and goals of social studies as defined by the profession and by individual districts. While their materials cannot depart too far from what most districts are willing to buy, publishers can give some special

attention to the needs of districts that are leading in establishing curricula that adhere most closely to the basic purpose and goals of social studies.

e. College and university teacher educators can evaluate their courses for preservice social studies teachers to determine the extent to which the courses contain a well-thought-out approach to preparing students for effective participation in the social world, with appropriate attention to the major elements of a comprehensive social studies program.

3. Project SPAN recommends that support be given at all levels to the production of curriculum materials and teacher resources needed to address relatively neglected areas of the social studies curriculum, such as critical thinking, social participation, societal issues, and student developmental needs.

a. Professional social studies organizations, particularly the National Council for the Social Studies, can take leadership in assisting and focusing the efforts of school districts to plan curricula that truly emphasize the basic purpose and major goals of social studies, thus helping to create a demand for materials that contribute more effectively to the accomplishment of those goals.

b. Social studies consultants and district administrators can support district efforts to produce curriculum materials that are supportive of the basic purpose and goals of social studies and, at the same time, reflect local needs related to those goals and local resources that can contribute to those goals.

c. Social studies teachers can take individual responsibility for developing supplementary materials for at least one new unit of study per year, units which are not likely to be available from commercial publishers. Examples of subject matter for such units include local public issues, the local school culture, and local resource persons.

d. State and district consultants and administrators can use their pivotal positions as links between publishers and teachers to create awareness among both groups of the need for materials that genuinely support the basic purpose and goals of the districts' social studies

programs. Particularly in larger states and cities, they can work with publishers on the joint development of experimental innovative materials, with at least tentative assurance of adoption and use by the cooperating states or cities. Some such effort is essential to breaking the impasse created by the reasonable reluctance of publishers to put substantial resources into innovative materials and the reluctance of districts to plan innovative curricula for which suitable materials are not available.

e. Publishers and funding agencies, especially private foundations, can work together to publish materials that help address neglected areas of the curriculum.

Recommendations: The Social Studies Profession

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies professionals engage in a continuing nationwide debate and dialogue about the basic purpose and directions of social studies. The purpose of the dialogue is to create one, or a small number of, statements about the rationale, goals, and objectives of social studies that will provide a sense of unity and direction for the profession.

Social studies can suffer from too much or too little focus. An authoritative, monolithic statement about the nature and purposes of social studies can discourage creative diversity, dissent, and change. Excessive fragmentation of purpose can result in destructive lack of unity and direction. What is needed is diversity within unity, flexibility within stability. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, many have felt a lack of unity and direction; movement toward a greater sense of unity may well be in order--but not at the expense of continued openness to change. Debate and discussion about these matters must involve all segments of the profession, not merely the academic scholars at universities. Examples of actions that may be taken by various groups to foster creative debate about social studies purposes follow:

a. The National Council for the Social Studies, in cooperation with others in the profession, can initiate efforts to move beyond the NCSS guidelines and essentials statement to produce a document that provides a clear statement of overall direction and purpose for social

studies, clearly defines and exemplifies alternative curricular and instructional approaches to attaining the general goals, and specifies the qualifications of teachers that will enable them to help themselves and students attain these goals.

b. District administrators and school boards can encourage their social studies professionals to participate in this continuing, nationwide dialogue by providing administrative and financial support.

c. District social studies consultants can contribute to the nationwide dialogue by making available, through professional journals and meetings, the work of their local districts on rationales, goals, objectives, course content, activities, and evaluation procedures.

d. Social studies teachers can participate in the dialogue by extending their own professional reading, participating in inservice activities directed toward these goals, contributing to local, regional, and national journals, and participating in regional and national meetings focused on the purpose of social studies.

e. Researchers can contribute to the dialogue, at the theoretical level, by advancing, reviewing, and synthesizing new knowledge about history and the social sciences, skill development, and learning theory. At the empirical level, they can conduct, review, and synthesize research about the most effective methods of achieving particular goals and objectives.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies professionals and other educators strive to create settings in which constructive and cooperative work is fostered among social studies educators, other educators, and laypersons.

Social studies professionals can profit from greater communication among themselves, receiving support, ideas, and challenges from each other. They can profit from interactions with other educational professionals and laypersons, by getting increased understanding and support from those persons and by responding to the criticisms and constructive suggestions of "outsiders." The "outsiders," in turn, can profit by getting a better understanding of the goals and methods of the social studies educators and by having the opportunity of influencing social studies programs.

Constructive and cooperative work among various groups and individuals can occur only if there is a will to work together, useful work to accomplish, and appropriate circumstances in which that work can be accomplished. Appropriate circumstances must be arranged, with attention to considerations such as appropriate meeting times and places, availability of participants, and availability of the required resources. Activities must be planned with clear statements of goals, agendas, and responsibilities and carried out with appropriate leadership, reports, and follow-up. Examples of actions that can be taken to foster such cooperative activities follow:

a. Social studies teachers can be brought together periodically for a variety of purposes, including updating content, improving instructional methods, and promoting professional development and identification with the profession and its goals. Teachers, consultants, and administrators can share responsibility for planning and executing such meetings. At the secondary level, some of the meetings can be held with teachers of other subjects to promote cooperative efforts bridging different subjects. At the elementary level, some of the meetings can focus on ways in which teachers can relate social studies to other subjects.

b. District administrators and school boards can give administrative and financial support to form and maintain district-wide, ongoing social studies planning committees. Such planning committees, constituted of overlapping, rotating memberships, can have responsibility for monitoring new developments outside and inside the district, disseminating information, planning inservice activities with consultants and administrators, recommending curriculum materials, and designing evaluation procedures.

c. State social studies consultants can work with district consultants and social studies committees to plan statewide professional activities, including information dissemination, inservice programs, and other professional development activities. They can also work with regional and state accrediting agencies to ensure that accreditation documents and practices encourage and support appropriate professional standards and practices.

d. Social studies education researchers in colleges, universities, and private organizations can meet with social studies consultants and

teachers before initiating school-based research in order to secure their help in designing research that is feasible, will be of value to practitioners, and will enlist the interest and cooperation of the school district and the teachers.

e. The National Council for the Social Studies and other social studies professional organizations can work with the teacher organizations, particularly NEA and AFT, to encourage negotiations with school districts of clear commitments to administrative support, financial support, and released time for inservice programs and other forms of staff development.

3. Project SPAN recommends that administrators and teachers recognize, encourage, and utilize the diversity and individuality that exists within the profession.

Students, teachers, administrators, consultants, and all other participants in educational endeavors have different goals, talents, and capacities. Expecting uniformity in capabilities and performance is futile; indeed, it would be unfortunate if uniformity could be achieved. Diversity and individuality can enrich every educational endeavor; they are sources of new ideas and challenges to old ideas.

a. Teachers can take the initiative in determining what renewal opportunities and experiences are most suitable for their own continuing development. Each teacher can be prepared to submit periodically an individualized plan for updating and renewing his or her own professional development and improvement of teaching. In addition to recognizing and planning for their own professional growth, teachers can seek to encourage and capitalize on the differing talents and interests of their students. To the extent of their abilities, teachers can use a variety of teaching materials and learning experiences.

b. Building principals and social studies consultants can consider the individual characteristics and needs of their social studies teachers in planning and providing opportunities for professional growth and renewal. Administrative and financial support can be provided to assist teachers in implementing their individualized professional development plans.

c. Researchers can focus more of their research efforts on diversity within the profession, on the unusual rather than on the average. Research leading to an understanding of the nature and effects of variations as well as central tendencies can enrich our knowledge and performance within the profession.

d. All social studies educators can provide platforms and sympathetic ears for the expression of diverse opinions, as well as reasonable latitude for a variety of approaches to social studies education. Persons with the power and influence to encourage or suppress diversity include planners of inservice programs and of local, regional, and national conferences; curriculum developers; teacher educators at universities; groups of parents and laypersons; and editors and publishers.

4. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators promote and support a series of role exchanges to improve communication and understanding among various members of the profession.

Role exchanges can greatly enhance each individual's effectiveness in his or her own niche and broaden one's vision of the whole field of social studies and of education. Role exchange can increase communication among those who are making the exchanges, thus giving a better perspective on one's own problems and the problems of others, while also introducing new ideas and techniques gleaned from one's peers in an action setting that may be more effective than the spoken and written word. Role exchanges can also have the additional, incidental benefit of bringing variety to both teacher and students.

a. Social studies teachers can exchange responsibilities, both with each other and with teachers of other subjects, giving a broader perspective on other teachers' curricula, students, and the school culture. Such exchanges can profitably take place between teachers in the same school, teachers in different schools, and teachers at different grade levels, including exchanges between teachers in magnet schools and feeder schools.

b. Social studies consultants, administrators, and classroom teachers, within and between districts, can exchange responsibilities, preferably for periods long enough to permit acquaintance with students

and school personnel in the new settings. Such exchanges can help consultants and administrators keep in touch with changing student attitudes and behavior, with the classroom effectiveness of particular curriculum materials, and with a variety of problems from the viewpoint of the classroom. The classroom teacher can get a better perspective on the responsibilities and problems of consultants and administrators.

c. College and university faculty can exchange with district consultants and teachers, giving the college teachers a current, realistic perspective on the precollege social studies curriculum and its problems, and on students, classroom teachers, and the school culture. District consultants and teachers can bring to college classrooms a realistic perspective on matters of precollege curriculum and procedures.

d. Editorial and sales personnel from publishing houses can, perhaps with somewhat greater difficulty, participate in role exchanges with social studies consultants and teachers, giving teachers and consultants a better understanding of the potentials and limitations of the publishing industry and giving the publishing personnel a better understanding of the realities and needs of the students for whom materials are written.

Recommendations: Public Support

1. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators conduct systematic efforts to demonstrate the nature and importance of social studies to the public.

One of the failures of the new social studies efforts of the 1960s and early 1970s was that their proponents tended to ignore the public until a crisis occurred. Social studies educators in the 1980s cannot afford to ignore the public. They must assume the initiative in convincing school boards, parent organizations, community groups, and other segments of the general public that social studies is an integral part of K-12 education. This task involves explaining and illustrating what a good, comprehensive social studies program is and why it is important. Leadership in these efforts can be assumed at the national and state levels, but must be directly communicated at the local levels as well. The following actions can be taken by various groups:

a. The National Council for the Social Studies can produce and publish a booklet explaining in clear language for the lay public what social studies is and why it is an important element of a child's education. This booklet should incorporate the best elements of the new NCSS essentials statement, the Parent's Guide to the Social Studies, and other resources that can help parents and other laypersons understand and appreciate the importance of social studies.

b. Social studies supervisors, in conjunction with teachers and state and local social studies councils, can use this booklet and materials from their local programs to conduct awareness programs for parents and members of their communities. These sessions can also include demonstration of activities that illustrate what social studies is and why it is important, as well as presentation and discussion of materials. Special emphasis can be given to the importance of social studies at the elementary level.

c. State social studies councils and state department consultants can identify a person to serve as liaison and monitor to the state legislature. This person can help communicate the views and needs of the council, teachers, and schools to legislators, as well as monitor efforts initiated by legislators that may have beneficial or harmful effects on social studies programs.

d. Social studies teachers can take advantage of back-to-school programs and parent-teacher conferences to show parents what they are doing in social studies and why that is important. Teachers can emphasize that social studies is more than memorizing facts from history and geography, that it includes understanding big ideas, learning thinking skills, and participating in the social world.

e. University professors, teacher educators, and researchers can provide social studies educators at all levels with the support materials needed to conduct these public awareness efforts. This support can include summaries of research results and ideas and activities for the awareness sessions.

2. Project SPAN recommends that social studies educators actively involve members of the public in their social studies programs.

Involving community members and the public in social studies programs can help to bring the real social world closer to students. It can also help increase public understanding of social studies and its importance in young people's education, thus increasing public support for social studies. Recent experience in many states with law-related education is illustrative: lawyers, judges, police, and other community members have demonstrated considerable support for law-related education and social studies programs as a result of their extensive involvement in these programs. These efforts should be broadened to include many other members of the public in other aspects of social studies programs. The following actions illustrate some things social studies educators can do to encourage this involvement:

a. Social studies teachers can include and involve members of their communities in their social studies programs in a variety of ways. Parents can be used to help on field trips and to offer places where students can conduct community learning activities. Many members of the community can also be effective guest speakers for social studies classes; these would include lawyers, judges, political officials, social scientists, and businesspersons.

b. Social studies supervisors can coordinate efforts to establish a file of resource people from the community who can serve as guest speakers or hosts for community learning activities for social studies programs.

c. Social studies supervisors and other administrators can involve members of the community, through the school board and parent organizations, in the process of curriculum revision and materials selection. The nature of this participation can range from reactions to drafts or preliminary plans to formal membership on committees.

d. Curriculum developers and publishers can identify specific places in their texts and other materials where teachers can use community members as resource people. This can include identifying particular topics that seem most appropriate and specific ways resource people can be used in studying these topics.

e. University professors and district supervisors can work together to plan and organize public forums to discuss some of the current issues in education and social studies, thus enabling teachers and members of the public to share ideas and understand one another's perspectives.

f. Funding agencies can provide support for public forums that center on issues of education, including social studies. These forums can be conducted and funded at state and local levels to ensure maximum participation and relevance to local issues and needs.

REFERENCES

Anderson, Lee (1982). "Barriers to Change in Social Studies." In The Current State of Social Studies: A Report of Project SPAN. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium.

Coleman, James S., et al. (1974). Youth: Transition to Adulthood. Report of the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Copperman, Paul (1978). "The Achievement Decline of the 1970s." Phi Delta Kappan 60, no. 10 (June), pp. 736-739.

Cusick, Philip A. (1973). Inside High School: The Student's World. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Ehman, Lee H. (1977). "Research on Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction: Values." In Review of Research on Social Studies Education: 1970-1975. Boulder, Colo.: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and Social Science Education Consortium; Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies.

Ehman, Lee H. (1979). "Research in Social Studies Education: Implications for Teaching Citizenship." Social Education 43, no. 7 (November/ December), pp. 594-596.

EPIE (1976). Report on a National Study of the Nature and the Quality of Instructional Materials Most Used by Teachers and Learners. EPIE Report no. 71. New York: Educational Products Information Exchange Institute.

Fancett, Verna S. and Sharryl Hawke (1982). "Instructional Practices in Social Studies." In The Current State of Social Studies: A Report of Project SPAN. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium.

Fetsko, William (1979). "Textbooks and the New Social Studies." Social Studies 70, no. 2 (March/April), pp. 51-55.

Fielding, Roger (1981). "Social Education and Social Change: Constraints of the Hidden Curricula." In Irving Morrissett and Ann M. Williams, eds., Social/Political Education in Three Countries. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium and ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education.

Flieger, Howard (1977). "The Economics Gap." U.S. News and World Report (January 31).

Gallup, George H. (1978). "The Tenth Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools." Phi Delta Kappan 60, no. 1 (September), pp. 33-45.

Gallup, George H. (1979). "The Eleventh Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools." Phi Delta Kappan 61, no. 1 (September), pp. 33-46.

Goldstein, Paul (1978). Changing the American School Book. Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath.

Goodlad, John I., and M. Francis Klein (1970). Behind the Classroom Door. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones.

Grannis, Joseph C. (1980). "Classroom Culture and the Problem of Control." In Arthur W. Foshay, ed., Considered Action for Curriculum Improvement. Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Hanna, Paul R. (1963). "Revising the Social Studies: What Is Needed?" Social Education 27, no. 4 (April), pp. 190-196.

Hansen, W. Lee (1977). "The State of Economic Literacy." In Donald Wentworth, W. Lee Hansen, and Sharryl Hawke, eds., Perspectives on Economic Education. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium.

Helburn, Nicholas, and Suzanne Wiggins Helburn (1978). "Stability and Reform in Recent American Curriculum." Unpublished paper.

Henning, Joel F., et al. (1979). Mandate for Change: The Impact of Law on Educational Innovation. Chicago: American Bar Association; Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium; Eugene, Ore.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.

Hertzberg, Hazel W. (1981). Social Studies Reform: 1880-1980. Report of Project SPAN. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium.

Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970: Parts 1 and 2 (1975). Washington, D.C.: Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce.

Holman, Evelyn Lezzer (1980). "The School Ecosystem." In Arthur W. Foshay, ed., Considered Action for Curriculum Improvement. Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Jackson, Philip W. (1968). Life in Classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Klein, M. Frances, Kenneth A. Tye, and Joyce E. Wright (1979). "A Study of Schooling: Curriculum." Phi Delta Kappan 61, no. 4 (December), pp. 224-248.

Leming, James E. (1979). "Research in Social Studies Education: Implications for Teaching Values." Social Education 43, no. 7 (November/December), pp. 597-598, 601.

Lengel, James C., and Douglas P. Superka (1982). "Curriculum Organization in Social Studies." In The Current State of Social Studies: A Report of Project SPAN. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium.

Lockwood, Alan L. (1978). "The Effects of Values Clarification and Moral Development Curricula on School Age Subjects: A Critical Review of Recent Research." Review of Educational Research 48, no. 3 (Summer), pp. 325-364.

Lortie, Dan C. (1975). Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Marker, Gerald W. (1980a). "Goals for Political and Social Participation." Journal of Research and Development in Education 31, no. 2 (Winter), pp. 72-81.

Martorella, Peter H. (1979b). "Part II, Research in Social Studies Education: Implications for Teaching in the Cognitive Domain." Social Education 43, no. 7 (November/December), pp. 599-601.

Morrissett, Irving, and John D. Haas (1982). "Rationale, Goals, and Objectives in Social Studies." In The Current State of Social Studies: A Report of Project SPAN. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium.

NAEP (1976). Education for Citizenship: A Bicentennial Survey. Denver: National Assessment of Educational Progress.

NAEP (1978a). Changes in Political Knowledge and Attitudes, 1969-76. Denver: National Assessment of Educational Progress.

NAEP (1978b). Changes in Social Studies Performance, 1972-76. Denver: National Assessment of Educational Progress.

Panel on Youth, President's Science Advisory Committee (1974). Youth: Transition to Adulthood. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Patrick, John J., with Sharryl Hawke (1982). "Social Studies Curriculum Materials." In The Current State of Social Studies: A Report of Project SPAN. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium.

Rappaport, Sandra Joyce (1978). "Teacher-Student Questioning and Approval/Disapproval Behavior in High School Social Studies." Summarized in Paul R. Wrubel and Roosevelt Ratliff, eds., Social Studies Dissertations: 1973-1976. Boulder, Colo.: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and Social Science Education Consortium.

Rosenshine, Barak, and Norma Furst (1971). "Research on Teacher Performance Criteria." In B.O. Smith, ed., Research in Teacher Education: A Symposium. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Rowe, Mary Budd (1978). Teaching Science as Continuous Inquiry: A Basic. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sarason, Seymour B. (1971). The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Schneider, Donald O. (1980). "Tradition and Change in the Social Studies Curriculum." Journal of Research and Development in Education 13, no. 2 (Winter), pp. 12-23.

Serow, Robert C., and Kenneth A. Stike (1978). "Student Attitudes Toward High School Governance: Implications for Social Education." Theory and Research in Social Education 6, no. 3, (September), pp. 14-26.

"Sex Rated Below Friends, School, and Sports" (1979). Denver Post (October 2).

Shaver, James P. (1979). "The Usefulness of Educational Research in Curricular/Instructional Decision Making in Social Studies." Theory and Research in Social Education 7, no. 3 (Fall), pp. 21-46.

Shaver, James P., O.L. Davis, Jr., and Suzanne W. Helburn (1979a). An Interpretive Report on the Status of Pre-Collegiate Social Studies Education Based on Three NSF-Funded Studies. Washington, D.C.: National Science Foundation.

Shaver, James P., O.L. Davis, Jr., and Suzanne W. Helburn (1979b). "The Status of Social Studies Education: Impressions From Three NSF Studies." Social Education 43, no. 2 (February), pp. 150-153.

Stake, Robert E., and Jack A. Easley, Jr. (1978). Case Studies in Science Education. Washington, D.C.: National Science Foundation.

Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1980, 99th ed. (1980). Washington, D.C.: Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce.

Tucker, Jan L. (1977). "Research on Social Studies Teaching and Teacher Education." In Review of Research in Social Studies Education: 1970-1975. Boulder, Colo.: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and Social Science Education Consortium; Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies.

Weiss, Iris R. (1978). National Survey of Science, Mathematics, and Social Studies Education. Washington, D.C.: National Science Foundation.

Wiley, Karen B. (1977). The Status of Pre-College Science, Mathematics, and Social Science Education: 1955-1975, vol. 3. Washington, D.C.: National Science Foundation.

Wright, David P. (1979). "Social Studies in 38 Schools: Research Findings From a Study of Schooling." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, Portland, Ore.

Wright, David P. (1980). Correspondence with Project SPAN staff, May/June.